

**A MODEL FOR A NON-NATIVE ELT TEACHER EDUCATION  
PROGRAMME**

by

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## Summary of the thesis

The problem this study addresses is the continuing ineffective teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) despite the popularity of in-service (INSET) programmes. As a means of situational analysis, ethnographic approaches were used to investigate the INSET participants in the four-year degree programme at the University of Botswana. Responses to one inventory containing second language teaching activities showed that the activities respondents know to characterize ESL classrooms do not facilitate much verbal teacher-pupil/pupil-pupil interaction. Responses to another inventory containing idealised course content showed evidence of needs the preparation programme was ignoring. This confirmed one of two study hypotheses that: *there are specific second language teaching needs being ignored by preparation programmes for primary school language teachers*. Document analysis verified the assumptions about what classroom English Language Teaching (ELT) was expected to achieve. However, lesson observation revealed that the products of the programme still taught and perceived English as a mental exercise, with the following results: the lessons were complicated, uninspiring, unenjoyable, restrictive, and ineffective. Questionnaire and interview results confirmed the second study hypothesis that: *the confidence of non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) with regard to competence in English, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching, is low*.

As a solution a model specifying the essential programme components for preparing ELT specialists in the primary school is proposed. The proposed model is however not prescriptive and the proposed content is neither exhaustive nor limiting, but only

broadly suggestive of the content of each instructional component. It is hoped that the product of the proposed model will become not only a well-educated person in the arts but also a highly proficient and self-confident person in ELT.

**Title of thesis:**

A MODEL FOR A NON-NATIVE ELT TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME

**Key terms:**

Language Teacher Education; Medium of Instruction; English Language Teaching; English as a Second Language; In-Service Education and Training; Native English-Speaking Teachers; Non-native English-Speaking Teachers; Initial Teacher Education; First Language; Second Language; Target Language; Communicative Language Teaching; Second Language Teaching Competence; English Language Competence

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## Declaration

Student Number      3317-979-4

I declare that “**A MODEL FOR A NON-NATIVE ELT TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME**” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

SIGNATURE

**Mr D Kasule**

.....

DATE

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### **List of abbreviations**

BTCI	Botswana Teaching Competencies Instruments
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
INSET	In-Service Education and Training
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
L1	First language
L2	Second language (used interchangeably with 'Target Language')
LORF	Lesson Observation Report Form
LTE	Language Teacher Education
MOI	Medium of Instruction
MPI	Mitchell and Parkinson Instrument
NESTs	Native English Speaking Teachers
Non-NESTs	Non-native English Speaking Teachers
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Language
VIA	Verbal Interaction Analysis

## CHAPTER ONE

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# STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Language has been rightly cited as a principal tool for learning. When the language of education is not the mother tongue, the role of the teacher as facilitator of this learning demands that the teacher possesses specific second language teaching competencies, skills and a very high sense of personal linguistic proficiency in the language of education. However, when language teachers are also learners of that language, and not native speakers, the responsibility placed on Language Teacher Education (LTE) programmes is to transform the process of language teacher preparation into a never-ending quest for quality. Indeed language teaching plays a vital role in the entire education system. Adegbija (1994:96) echoes the powerful influence of language (read *English language*) for national development in these words:

*The educational system is the powerhouse of development in every nation. When it is sick, its sickness will most likely be contagious and affect the entire nation. On the other hand, when it is healthy, the entire nation in all probability will enjoy good overall health. Language is crucial in ensuring the health of an educational system. Language use in education can make or mar an entire educational edifice.*

Chimbganda & Kasule (1999: 142) observed that English Language Teaching (ELT) plays a pivotal role in bringing about the overall 'good health' within an education system that is conducted in a non-native language, as is the case in English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) countries in Africa. Within ESL countries there can never be good schools without effective ELT, and whatever instructional experts may say about the learner being the

focus of attention in the classroom, the notion that ELT is the kingpin in the educational systems of such countries, remains valid.

A number of contextual problems may account for the ineffectiveness of ELT in the primary school. The problems include high teacher-pupil ratios, poor classroom resources, high expectations of good results, diverse pupil profiles, the physical classroom set-ups, the mismatch between modern ELT approaches and the language situation in ESL countries. Chimbanga & Kasule (1999: 142) showed how the problem of ineffective ELT in ESL countries directly resulted from living in a linguistic situation where the language of day-to-day activities is not the language of education. They argued that since the wider community does not use English for their day-to-day communication; ELT cannot rely on the community to reinforce the pupil's concurrent processes of learning and development of English language. As a result, pupil expectations, and those of a critical general public, are often not fulfilled: pupil performance often does not match the amount of time and effort spent on the teaching of English.

Despite such arguments, teacher education and its products have come under frequent criticism. For instance, in one ESL country (Kenya) Abura (1998:42) identified three problems associated with teacher preparation and ELT practice in primary schools, namely:

- Lack of balance between theory and practice in ELT preparation programmes.
- A mismatch between teacher preparation and what happens in the classroom.
- Admitting poorly qualified entrants into teacher preparation programmes.

A similar view is shared by Tisher and Wideen (1990:1) when they observe following a review of literature on teacher education that, besides admitting poor entrants, institutions were underfunded, detached from the schools they were servicing with teachers, and did not pursue a common knowledge base of education.

In response to such criticism the content and process of LTE have been under scrutiny. Richards and Nunan (1990:xii) report that the field of second and foreign language teaching is constantly being renewed by different claims as to what teachers need to know, as well as by different approaches to the processes of developing this knowledge base in future teachers. Richards (1990:14) discusses the issues of content and process as a dilemma for educators because although discrete skills can be readily taught to the novice, they do not guarantee effective teaching when such skills are imported from outside the classroom and consequently, become prescriptive. Richards therefore proposes a balance between the prescriptive approaches and the reflective ones, which he refers to as microperspective and macroperspective domains, respectively. Ellis (1990:26) developed a similar dichotomy in the activities and procedures of teacher preparation and called them *experiential* (for instance, teaching practice, microteaching) and *awareness-raising* (activities that contribute to the novice's understanding of the principles underlying second language teaching) practices.

Recently a distinction between 'teacher training', 'teacher education', and 'teacher development' (Wallace 1991:3), has been made in teacher education programmes. Initial teacher preparation (ITE) programmes are often associated with *teacher training*, a

practice that Ellis (1990:27) regards as ‘the result of convenience and tradition than principled decision making’; and in-service teacher education and training (INSET) programmes with *teacher education and development*. According to Freeman (1990:103) the impact of INSET is therefore *teacher development*, a strategy whose goal is to foster independent teachers who know what they are doing and why.

The shift in emphasis from teacher training to teacher education and development has also led to notions about a shift from university/college-based training to school-based practices involving mentoring. Lange (1990:251) discusses teacher development programmes that involve practising teachers acting as mentors and are school-based so that they respond to identified, real problems in actual classes, in real schools. England (1998:18) sees school-based teacher education as helping to eradicate the divide between theory and practice, or between academic and professional preparation, so that course work combined with practical real-world experiences become the norm in many programmes. Wallace (1991:16) cautions that the observation of ‘master teachers’ need not imply imitation by the trainee (a behaviourist orientation) but a way of providing ‘another kind of experience to be analysed and reflected on and then related to the trainee’s own practice’ (a cognitivist orientation). Mtetwa & Thompson (1999:47) reviewed the growing body of literature on mentoring and observed that school-based mentoring has not happened in many developing countries, and that elsewhere it has only penetrated generic (not subject-specific) ITE programmes for primary school teachers.

Models of teacher education attempt to classify teacher education according to the main features in its practice. According to Wallace (1991:6) there are three main professional education models, namely, the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. Stuart (1997:2) views the craft model as reminiscent of apprenticeship practices of 19<sup>th</sup> century Europe. In this model the student teacher learns by watching a master teacher at work. The place of training for the apprentice therefore, must be the school, and assessment would be largely by demonstrable behavioural competences.

The advent of Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE), sometimes called Performance-Based Teacher Education (PBTE), in the late 1960's saw a return to the old apprenticeship model. CBTE is itself an offshoot of Competency-Based Education (CBE), a programme in which 'the competencies to be acquired and demonstrated by the student, and the criteria to be applied in assessing the student's relative achievement of those competencies are made explicit and public and the student is held accountable for meeting those criteria' (Schmieder, Mark, & Aldrich, 1977:61). Richards (1990:7) posits CBTE/PBTE models specific to LTE that were developed from studies that were informed by second language acquisition theory and incorporated into preparation programmes so as to impart distinct strategies such as the teacher's questioning skills, wait-time, time-on-task, classroom management, the ratio of teacher talk to pupil talk, *et cetera*. The principles of the now popular Outcomes-Based Education (OBE), which requires the outcomes expected at the end of the learning to be stipulated so as to guide the teacher educator on what to teach, and the student teachers on what is expected of them, is likely to influence

LTE models in countries following OBE curricula. Van der Horst & McDonald (2002:8) trace the origins of OBE to CBE.

It needs to be stressed also that, with reference to LTE, it is helpful to downplay '*teacher training*' and stress '*teacher development*'. Chimbanga (1997:52) argues that 'since the linguistic competences and the professional skills of non-NESTs can never be finite, a 'teacher development' orientation to LTE is helpful. He adds that 'development' implies 'no terminal point, but ... a point of departure from which the ESL teacher travels an infinite professional journey'. Sithamparam & Dhamotharam (cited in Chimbanga 1997:52) offer a broader scope of teacher development when they state that teacher development is a continuous process beginning at the ITE stage and going on for the rest of the teacher's career. In the view of the latter LTE therefore can be seen as a process of life-long learning interspersed by ITE and INSET.

Additionally, because INSET can be tailored to respond to specific problems after a careful needs analysis of the participants' teaching situations including their needs and expectations (using ethnographic techniques such as interviews, questionnaires, participant observations, et cetera), Dubin & Wong (1990:282) recommend the development of INSET programmes that are not mirror images of ITE, so that while ITE programmes deal with 'educating future teachers', INSET ones deal with 'situation-oriented concerns'. However, a better suggestion Dubin & Wong (1990:287) advance is when teacher educators acting as 'educators-as-ethnographers' seek information about the participants' work world and about themselves as a teacher-educator team.

One problem in modernising classroom language teaching is that teachers resist innovations. Chapman and Snyder (cited in Marope and Chapman 1997:90), say that *'the work life complexity hypothesis'* is helpful in explaining why some teachers appear to resist innovations even those of demonstrated effectiveness. Chapman and Snyder make the observation that because *'all innovations increase the complexity of teacher work life by expecting them to use different instructional materials, teach in new ways or learn new content'*, the solution is either to lower the complexity of the intervention, or to increase the incentives so that teachers believe the extra effort is being rewarded. For this study the implication is that using *INSET for upgrading* and *INSET for promotion to perform new roles* can be conveniently used as an incentive to introduce more modern second language teaching approaches

The insights mentioned in section 1.1 are helpful in the effort to modernise and improve classroom ELT in ESL countries; and more specifically to this study, in examining the assumptions underlying the practices of the INSET programme at the University of Botswana so as to develop a model for the preparation of primary school ELT specialists.

### **1.1.0 Types of INSET programmes**

Duration has been used to characterise INSET programmes. For instance, according to Brumfit & Roberts (1983:193), INSET programmes are 'fitted into evenings, weekends, vacations, et cetera'. In this way it can involve relatively short-term activities drawing together the staff of given schools to attend internally or externally arranged courses.



However, Bude & Greenland (1983:31) who studied INSET programmes in thirteen ESL countries identified five types by *purpose*. These are:

- *INSET for initial training*

Such programmes arise from the existence of untrained teachers in the service because existing training colleges could not supply sufficient numbers. A 'training' orientation implies a view of the teachers as novices whose professional needs are determined for them by the employer. In a strong criticism of such a training orientation, Irvine-Niakaris & Bacigal (1992:42) condemn it for subjecting trainees to 'a period of conditioning' identical to Pavlovian '*operational conditioning*' and Skinner's '*behaviouristic approach*'.

- *INSET for general refresher purposes*

Such teacher 'training' courses (often called 'workshops') are characterized by addressing a specific objective that has been identified followed by demonstrations of a range of classroom techniques as ready-made answers to the problem.

- *INSET for curriculum re-orientation*

These courses arise when curricula are adjusted to suit new national needs. Bude & Greenland (1993: 31) noted that following the political changes at independence, many new states reviewed their education systems to bring them in line with new national aspirations. Such curriculum reviews led to a need to reorientate serving teachers to the new instructional materials and new teaching styles. Within this view of INSET courses are *organized in response to a particular deficit exhibited by serving teachers*.

- *INSET for new roles*

These are associated with a need to widen teachers' roles as agents of development who can serve in identified tasks within the profession. The programmes avoid assuming that

serving teachers can perform any task in the profession. Tasks such as school head, college lecturer, supervisor (or *master teacher*), involve this kind of INSET programme under the auspices of a specialist department of the university. At the University of Botswana, for example, the initial objective was to use INSET in order to upgrade experienced teachers to lecturers in the colleges of education.

- *INSET for upgrading*

These are often the result of a need to raise qualifications of lowly trained serving teachers. Such programmes lead to the award of a higher certificate.

### **1.1.1 Historical background of the problem**

Historically, English was popularised within ESL countries by a desire to gain entry into the new work force of clerks and other employees during colonial times. Governments and Christian missions built English medium schools staffed by a small number of native English-speaking teachers (henceforth NESTs) and a large number of who were non-native English-speaking teachers (henceforth non-NESTs). Consequently, a systematic and constant development of a body of non-NESTs emerged as depicted in this account of the situation in Southern Nigeria:

*The great majority of primary school teachers have themselves learnt English from other African teachers. Primary school English ... is thus a very interesting example of a fairly constant level by teachers who have relatively little contact with native speakers of that language (Platt, Weber, & Lian, 1984:4).*

Pioneer non-NESTs in many ESL countries had an identical profile. They required a minimum pass at Standard 6 in order to enter the pioneer training centres that were often located in far-flung places. Such locations meant that these centres did not provide a large community of speakers of English. So the recruits could not benefit from interaction with any other users of English apart from their trainers in formal lecture-room settings, as would normally be the case were these pioneer centres located in large metropolitan settings. Consequently, the fact that these pioneer non-NESTs were speaking a language learnt in the classroom, meant that it was different from that of its native speakers who acquire it in natural settings around the home and the community. With time, generations of non-NESTs joined the teaching force after having themselves learnt English from fellow non-NESTs.

Botswana's teacher training experiences testify to the above-mentioned pattern. According to records (Republic of Botswana Archives S.482/1/1-5), the main reason for opening the two pioneer centres at Kanye (120km from Botswana's capital city of Gaborone) and Serowe (itself 315km from Gaborone) was to improve the quality of education, but particularly the quality of language instruction. Minimum entry requirements were a pass at Standard 6. The curriculum at these centres was composed of English, Arithmetic and Methods (S.482/1/ 1-5). Due to managerial difficulties arising from the vastness of the territories to traverse from far-off Mafikeng, the Kanye Centre was moved to Lobatse, and in 1947 the Serowe Centre was temporarily closed. It was later reopened due to an increasing demand for teachers. With the opening of senior schools at St Joseph's, Moeng and Moeding, it was possible to raise entry requirements to teacher training to a Junior

School Certificate and subsequently to the Cambridge School Certificate. It is evident that, like elsewhere in ESL countries, entrants were speaking English learnt exclusively in classroom settings.

A further observation from this historical account is that because these teachers were speaking English learnt in the classroom, the efficiency and effectiveness with which they taught English was greatly influenced by the process by which they themselves were taught it. It is not surprising that ELT classroom activities have not changed much since the pioneer training centres of 1947.

Based on actual English language teaching and learning experience in Uganda, Kenya, Zimbabwe, and Botswana the researcher has observed that the language of education in many ESL countries has remained fundamentally unchanged from what it was in the heyday of British colonial education between 1920 and 1950. Upon attainment of political independence from Britain around 1960, the various African local languages were strongly perceived as divisive at a time when the political task was to unify the seemingly divided nations. The difficulty of translating educational curricula from English to the various local languages was overestimated. English was therefore accorded official status, and was retained as the medium of instruction (MOI) in addition to being the language of most selective examinations in ESL countries. Today in ESL countries, being educated has come to mean being able to speak English. Consequently, the prestige of English is very high and pupils are under immense pressure from home and school to learnt it.

During the 1980's a growing interest in the English spoken by non-natives as an area of academic study was emerging. Largely in recognition of its uniqueness in features such as sounds, intonation patterns, sentence structure, vocabulary and certain rules of usage, the non-native varieties have been called 'New Englishes' (Platt *et al.* 1984, Kachru 1983, Pride 1982, Bamgbose, Banjo, & Thomas 1997) and 'World Englishes' (Morrison, 1989). In ESL African countries, the variety that has evolved though quite intelligible across its multilingual users is strongly influenced by the speakers' mother tongue. Therefore, depending on the diversity of the language situation, the variety is different from one region to another, especially in terms of sounds and intonation patterns. It is best therefore to regard such differences as *variations*, rather like Todd (in Pride 1982: 130) argues that the case of variations is also prevalent in monolingual communities too based on 'region, class, age and education, loyalties and aspiration'.

Given the multilingual situation of ESL African countries, an almost infinite set of non-native varieties abounds which however is quite intelligible as lingua franca for many Africans. It is suggested here that, firstly, emphasis should not be placed on 'features of Botswana variety' for instance as peculiar entities, but on the intelligibility it achieves. Secondly, to acknowledge that the similarities in school systems across the continent have helped many ESL African speakers to acquire a generally homogeneous type of English as an effective and efficient tool for regional and continental communication. Arthur (1994:67) argued that a Botswana variety of English could promote effective classroom, national, and regional communication. Kachru (1983:156) argues that the transplanting of

English to other country contexts is a valid reason for 'deviations' and innovations, and that the aim of teaching English is not to produce speakers of British Received Pronunciation.

Kachru's and Arthur's views contribute to the investigation in this study into the possibility of an ELT teacher education model for non-NESTs geared to achieving greater effectiveness. In paragraph 4.5, the 'standardness' of the ESL variety learnt in African classrooms and its intelligibility will be argued and verified.

However, the existence of a 'standard' intelligible variety has not been accompanied by effective teaching styles. Historically, Standard British English (itself an ambiguous label) was imposed as the model to be aspired to largely because British teachers and trainers along with the teaching materials prescribed it. Even today, with many of the teachers being non-NESTs, English is still being taught with the British variety as the standard norm. For purposes of improving ELT instruction, the value of accepting non-native varieties as standard on the basis of intelligibility is inestimable because it gives confidence to both the pupil and teacher. Such confidence is critical to the process of error correction in the classroom, and subsequently, to pupils' language development.

### **1.1.2 Effectiveness of English teaching: the case of Botswana**

As in other ESL countries, a synopsis of research reports of the effectiveness of classroom ELT at all levels of education in Botswana paints a grim picture. Nearly thirty years ago, the Republic of Botswana National Commission on Education (RNCE 1977) review report of the entire education system lamented that many high school students were unable to express themselves orally; that their written English was full of mistakes; and that high

failure rates in public examinations were the norm every year. The review recommended wide ranging improvements. A follow-up review (RNCE 1993) reported fifteen years later that:

*a major reason why children do not perform well at the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) is that their mastery of English is poor. A number of reasons may account for this ... many primary school teachers are themselves not very competent in the use of English* (RNCE 1993: 112).

RNCE 1993 echoed Prophet and Rowell (1988), who in their observation of junior secondary classrooms in Botswana, lambaste teachers for dominating lessons with teacher talk, and accuse them of cultivating a learning culture of passivity, rote learning, and for conducting lessons with sameness and monotony each day. Even the important role teacher talk plays in second language (L2) learning, and which may be compared to the vital role caretaker speech plays in the acquisition of the first language (L1), is disputed by these authors.

The official position on INSET for purposes of language teaching in Botswana primary schools appeared in the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE 1994) and reads as follows:

*"With respect to the teaching of languages in primary school, an accelerated programme of in-service training should be undertaken to*

*improve the teaching of English as a subject from standard one, with emphasis on oral communication"* (RNPE 1994: 60).

Teaching English for oral communication implies that the teachers themselves can use English to serve conversational purposes before they can teach pupils how to do it. Nyati-Ramahobo & Orr (1993:107) reported that code mixing between the pupils' first language (L1) and English was a recurrent feature of primary school classroom interaction and that when asked, teachers justified the practice on the need to make pupils understand; a response the authors regarded as a cover-up for the teachers' own inability to sustain instruction in English as evidenced from the teachers' instructions which were sometimes unclear and provided a poor English language model. Teachers were also found unable to acknowledge how much their own incompetence to speak English was affecting the way they were teaching.

Other studies, such as Chimbganda's (1998: 75) and Pongweni's (1999: 173), report a cycle of ill-preparedness of students of the University of Botswana attributed to the deficient language learning process at secondary school which 'does not prepare them adequately for the rigours of higher academic studies'. Arthur (1994:67) investigated the use of English in primary school classrooms in Botswana and showed how ESL teachers struggle to make meaning for their pupils because of the 'foreignness of English'.

As state-run education becomes increasingly accessible to the vast majority of children, as is the case in Botswana today, there are bound to be problems associated with a rapid growth in education. One of these problems is the problem of large classes of mixed



ability learners. Research conducted by French (1993:67) has shown that the teachers' ability to display effective teaching behaviours, and their ability to establish good interpersonal communication with their pupils are seriously compromised when the teacher is confronted by a crowded and mixed-ability class.

However, what usually qualifies as a large or small class is what the respondent or the researcher thinks it is. In the case of Botswana, the average teacher-pupil ratio is about 1:40 at secondary school, and about 1:35 at primary school. These are large classes. It is however not uncommon to see classes with above these figures. Some primary schools in Botswana operate double shifts so as to reduce overcrowding. Because no entrance examination is required to secure a primary school place in Botswana, classes are characterised by wide disparities in the abilities of the pupils. In large classes, interactive group learning is often dictated more by the shortage of teaching/learning materials rather than by a genuine need of promoting spontaneous inter-pupil communication. Chimbanga & Kasule (1999:145) argued that the atmosphere in large classes generally leads 'to alienation, emotional disengagement from pupils, withdrawal from professional commitment and reduced tolerance for slow pupils'. Even then, trends in enrolments in Botswana indicate that the problem of large classes is unlikely to change in the foreseeable future because of the current official policies of universal primary education (UPE) and that of maintaining an almost hundred percent transition from primary to secondary school (RNCE, 1993: 151).

Despite these drawbacks, the learning of English continues to be very popular with ESL pupils. And contrary to what may prevail in other parts of the world, such as the former 'iron-curtain' countries where, according to Phillipson (cited in Kasule 2000 *a*: 4), "EFL teaching serves the British interests of a neo-imperialist foreign policy and of a narrow circle of native-speaker 'experts' rather than those language learners throughout the world", in African ESL countries attitudes towards English are favourable. This is because of the close relationship between English proficiency and school success, which employers, parents and other caregivers rightly see to be the strongest determinant of suitability for a job (Kasule 2000 *b*: 58). It is also officially held that the mastery of English 'brings with it advantages within the education system and in the world of work' (RNCE 1993: 113).

The problem of ineffective classroom ELT recurring in the above research reports is largely the result of enforcing a specific language in an environment that does not use it. The impact of such enforcement on those who are at the centre of classroom ELT, namely the classroom teachers, is low confidence and persistent feelings of inadequacy. Can LTE make a difference?

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

### **1.2.1 Background to the problem**

In 1994 English officially became the medium of instruction from Standard Two onwards in Botswana's education system (RNPE 1994:59). The demand on teachers for increased English use and proficiency with pupils, whose competence in the language was non-existent, was confounding. Not only were the teachers non-NESTs, they were also

generalists by training. They teach all the subjects on the timetable. The move was therefore accompanied by the pronouncement that an accelerated programme of INSET be undertaken to improve the teaching of English as a subject from Standard one, with emphasis on oral communication (RNPE 1994:60). Against a background of ineffective ELT across the different levels of the school system, and of INSET programmes themselves, efforts for improvement are positively received by participants as judged from the steadily growing class sizes (see Figure 1.1) of INSET graduates of the University of Botswana. The popularity of English is also high (RNCE 1993:113).

The problem being investigated in this study arose from a collaborative study of the work lives of secondary school language teachers in Botswana, all of whom are non-NESTs. The title of the afore-mentioned study is *Teacher Burnout in Botswana's ESL Secondary School Classrooms*. The aim of the study was to investigate what effect on secondary school ESL teachers did these factors have:

- (a) the crises of expectations from learners and their parents, the teachers' colleagues, and the public, and
- (b) the negative criticism of ELT classroom practice.

The implicit problem addressed in the study was: *What can be done to avoid the burnout of secondary school English language teachers?* It was concluded that many of the symptoms of professional stress were related to the thoroughness of the *teachers' preparation* for the challenges of ESL teaching. It was argued that so far secondary school language teachers go through a generalised form of teacher preparation at the University of Botswana, in which ESL teaching methodology is *only a single course* among many other

courses in educational foundations, philosophy and curriculum studies. It was also concluded that this form of LTE may not be adequate enough to enable secondary school language teachers to be supremely confident to *handle the complex* nature of second language teaching.

The study therefore suggested that for purposes of LTE, preparation programmes should explore possibilities of offering *specialised ESL teaching qualifications* that can be *an alternative qualification* to a generalised form of teacher preparation. A further suggestion was that the ESL teaching qualification should be *well grounded* in both the *theory and practice of modern language teaching* so that the level of ESL teaching can be raised in the schools. In addition, the study made the following observation about improving secondary school ELT:

*In the meantime, bold measures could be taken in order to enhance the teachers' commitment. One of these is to seriously consider the teachers' views on crucial matters that affect the discharge of their duties, such as the size of the ESL class, teaching load, distribution of intra and extra curriculum duties and other pertinent issues"* (Chimbganda & Kasule 1999:154 - 155).

In view of what was observed at the secondary school level, the *purpose* of the current study is to examine the preparation of *specialist language* teachers for the primary school. Primary school teacher preparation programmes have to contend with the generic nature of primary school teaching that sees one teacher having to teach all subjects on the timetable. Defining the role of the subject specialist in such a situation is complicated. Another

complexity is the selection of entrants into the specialist preparation programme who may not have studied English as a subject of study before, except as a teaching subject during ITE. In addition, the programme process and content must be designed for such entrants so that on completion of the programme, their expertise is comparable with other specialists in the field such as those teachers proceeding to teach English in the secondary school.

The *main problem* the current study addresses is the continuing ineffective teaching of English as a second language in spite of the popularity of in-service teacher preparation programmes. This popularity is demonstrated by the ever-growing number of students graduating as ELT specialists in the past six academic years from 1998 to 2004 at the University of Botswana as shown in figure 1.1:

*Figure 1.1      Number graduating as primary school ELT specialists*

Academic year	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04
Number of language specialist students	14	15	20	40	*19	30

\*The low figure for the academic year 2002/03 was attributed to the general reduction in sponsorship grants available that year from the Ministry of Education, the main sponsor.

As noted in paragraph 1.1, a number of contextual and other factors may account for the ineffectiveness of ELT in the primary school. However, this study opted to analyse the INSET situation at the University of Botswana because firstly, if we need to give pupils the best education possible, we must first provide the best education to those who will teach them; and secondly, as a language teacher educator, the researcher was enabled an easier entry point in terms of making research contacts, and piloting and administering the research instruments.

### 1.2.2 Formulation of the problem

The main problem this study focuses on is the continuing ineffective teaching of English as a second language in spite of the popularity of in-service teacher preparation programmes. As a means of situation analysis, the study will examine participants in a four-year degree programme of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana that prepares teachers to become subject specialists in the primary school. Strengths and weaknesses will be noted before proposing the teacher preparation model for ELT specialists.

Currently, in preparing non-NESTs as specialists in ELT for *primary schools* at the University of Botswana's four-year BEd (Primary) INSET programme, this strong consideration is made:

that although on admission entrants have not majored in English language study, they have a vast 'experiential knowledge' of classroom ELT, of using the standard variety of English, and of the diglossic nature of the language situation in Botswana.

The fundamental problem which this study addresses therefore, is:

**\*WHAT ARE THE ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS OF A TRAINING  
PROGRAMME FOR NON-NESTs TO BECOME ELT SPECIALISTS IN  
PRIMARY SCHOOLS?**

The following subsequent sub-problems derive from this fundamental problem:

- What activities characterise English language classrooms conducted by non-NESTs within ESL settings? (See Chapter 2)

- What pedagogical skills do non-NESTs regard as crucial to their work of English language teaching? (See Chapter 3)
- What are the perceived linguistic difficulties of non-NESTs? (See Chapter 4)
- What would be an ideal model for the preparation of non-NESTs? (See Chapter 5).

Why concern with ELT specialists in the primary school? Firstly, the generic nature of primary school teaching complicates preparing teachers for this level as subject specialists during ITE. Secondly, due to lack of reinforcement from outside the classroom, English is bound to be less effectively and efficiently learnt for use as medium of instruction (MOI) and for communication outside classroom settings. Despite that, a regionally, continentally, and globally intelligible standard variety of English, which conforms to acceptable levels of correctness, must be transmitted in the classroom. Under these varied conditions ELT needs preparation programmes that are different from those for native English-speaking teachers. The issue of differences in teaching needs of NESTs and non-NESTs is a pertinent concern. It also involves acknowledging that because ELT is in the hands of non-NESTs, it is bound to be different in many ways such as fluency, intonation, sentence patterns, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Thirdly, because primary school is the foundation of every pupil's education, concern with who teaches the pupil at this level is fundamental. Unless it is in the hands of well-prepared teachers, it is bound to lack in effectiveness and efficiency. More fundamentally, English teaching is the area that most directly affects pupils' school achievement, and yet, the

process of English learning within ESL countries is a purely teacher-oriented classroom process.

In this study it is also assumed that without ascertaining the training needs of INSET entrants, responding to real classroom dynamics, and acknowledging the language situation, quality language instruction will continue to elude us.

### **1.2.3 Aims of the study**

As a solution to the problem of the continuing ineffective ELT despite the popularity of INSET programmes, the purpose of this study is to develop a model for preparing ELT specialists in the primary school that can respond to:

- Teachers' pedagogical weaknesses in classroom ELT instruction;
- The perceived linguistic needs of non-NESTs; and
- Role expectations for ELT specialists in the primary school

The **hypotheses** of this study was formulated as follows:

*\*Due to problems with the English language, the confidence of non-NESTs, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching, is low resulting in feelings of inadequacy towards the task of English language teaching (ELT); and,*

*\*There are specific second language teaching needs being ignored by preparation programmes for primary school language teachers.*

The model will specify the essential components of an INSET preparation programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in primary schools. The model to be developed is an ideal one. It is not intended to be prescriptive. The model for the preparation of non-



NESTs is developed with the view that teachers' language competence is related to classroom practice. The study involves finding what components of *knowledge*, *skills*, and *attitudes* can lead to improved language teaching practices at the school and classroom levels, and how these components can be imparted to participants within the INSET intervention programme such as the four-year programme at the University of Botswana.

In the task of developing a model for the preparation of non-NESTs, the classifications of INSET programmes by Bude and Greenland (1983:33) will be helpful (see details in paragraph 1.1.0). If the INSET programme at the University of Botswana is classified as *INSET for new roles*, it should respond to the need to specify the roles of ELT specialists serving in identified tasks in the primary school. Alternatively, if it is classified as *INSET for upgrading* it should be seeking to raise the qualifications of lowly trained serving teachers with a view to make them effective and efficient. A combination of both classifications is helpful in the researcher's conceptualisation of the task of developing a model for ELT specialists because the subjects of this study, all non-NESTs, are being prepared to perform subject specialist roles in primary school ELT either as classroom teachers, college lecturers, inspectors, or curriculum developers.

### **1.3 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS**

#### **1.3.1 English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) countries**

These are countries (also referred to as 'anglophone' countries) especially in Africa, (*but also in Asia, especially India*) where English, though not the mother tongue, has special status as an official language, the language of advanced academic study, and is, in some of

these countries, the sole medium of instruction (MOI). It is also used as the language of government business, as well as national, regional and international communication. The African ESL countries in alphabetical order are:

*Botswana, Cameroon (also French-speaking), Gambia, Ghana, Egypt, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.*

McArthur (1998:47-55) lists South Africa as belonging to the English-as-a-Native-Language (ENL) territories. He defines ENL territories as areas where ‘the great majority of people ... have English as their first and, in very many cases, their only language’. However, according to 1995 figures ([www.angelfire.com](http://www.angelfire.com)), out of a total South African multi-racial and multi-ethnic population of 42,741,000, only 13% are Europeans. The blacks belong to nine ethnic groups, namely; Zulu, Xhosa, Pedi, Sotho, Tswana, Tsonga, Swazi, Ndebele, and Venda. And, not all the Europeans are descendants of English-speaking settlers but there are descendants of Dutch, German, and French speakers as well. The apparent irony in categorizing South Africa as an ENL territory demonstrates the difficulties involved in categorizing countries using linguistic criteria.

### **1.3.2 In-Service Education and Training (INSET) of teachers**

The functional definition of INSET adopted in this study is that from Bolam (1982:3) who characterizes INSET as ‘those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals, following their initial professional certification and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order that they educate children more effectively’.

Within education, the acronym *INSET* originally included in-service *Teacher Education* and *Training*. In this study, INSET is addressed from a preference for a 'teacher development' orientation. So as to de-emphasise 'training' the term 'preparation programmes' is used instead of 'training programmes' commonly found in the literature. More specifically INSET is used in this study to refer to the residential four-year B Ed (Primary) degree course. The course is designed for entrants who have had initial teacher education (ITE) and is intended to *develop* the professional knowledge, skills and attitudes of the teachers so that they can be more effective and competent in teaching language.

Using Bude and Greenland's (1983) classification discussed in paragraph 1.1.0, the Bachelor's Degree programme for subject specialists in Primary Education of the University of Botswana, which is the focus of this study, should be seen as both *INSET for upgrading* and *INSET for new roles*.

### **1.3.3 Initial Teacher Education (ITE)**

Also known as pre-service teacher education programmes, such programmes are intended for entrants, likely to be school leavers, who have not started working in the classroom. In the context of Botswana four colleges of primary education (Francistown College, Serowe College, Lobatse College, and Tlokweng College) provide such preparation and currently award diplomas, and are affiliated to the University of Botswana. These ITE colleges do not form part of this study. However, the products of these colleges are admitted into the INSET programme of the University of Botswana, which is *inter alia* the subject of this study.

### **1.3.4 Model**

Within education (including teacher education), a ‘model’ is a simplified version of something that helps pay attention to certain features of phenomena. Because in this study the researcher wants to find out how best to prepare ELT specialists for the primary school so that they are effective language teachers, a teacher preparation model helps in identifying the point in the preparation process at which to intervene and the essential components to stress.

The word 'model' has other usages in linguistics and language teaching according to Richards, Platt, & Weber (1985:180-181). In linguistics 'model' may refer to a whole system of a language, or to a whole theory. In language teaching 'model' refers to someone/something used as a standard or goal for the learner such as the pronunciation of an educated native speaker being referred to as 'a native speaker model'. Both these usages are relevant to the preparation model developed in this study in so far as they relate to the field of second language teaching and learning. However, they do not form the central focus of the study.

### **1.3.5 Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (non-NESTs):**

For the purpose of this study, non-NESTs are teachers for whom English is a required tool of their profession. For such teachers English is neither the first nor the only language. It is also neither their home language nor the language of day-to-day communication. This term is preferred to many others such as 'second language teachers', 'ESL teachers', 'English teachers', 'African teachers of English', 'Black teachers of English', or 'Botswana teachers of English', or the more ambiguous labels such as 'African English Teachers', 'Black

English teachers', and 'Botswana English teachers', because, the term 'non-NESTs' is broader and makes reference to the English learning experiences of these teachers, and to the language situation these teachers work in.

Medgyes (1994:10) discusses attempts not to appear to be advocating for a 'them and us' division. He reports attempts to refer to non-native speakers as '*more or less accomplished*'; '*proficient users of English*'; '*expert speakers and affiliation*'; and '*English-using speech fellowships*' in a bid to play down the dichotomy. However, this study would like to acknowledge that the differences implied in the various labels above are significant for classroom ELT. For this reason, the term 'non-NESTs' conveniently characterizes the subjects of this study and its concerns.

### **1.3.6 Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs)**

This category refers to those teachers of English for whom English is the first, and perhaps, the only language. The category can however be sub-divided into two groups:

- Those from territories where English language is without major competition from another language as in the United Kingdom, Australia, or Liberia and Jamaica.
- Those from territories with one or more other major language as in South Africa and Canada (see McArthur, 1998:53 for a detailed categorization).

### **1.3.7 Competence**

In this study 'competence' is used to refer both to the ability to use second language (second language competence), and the ability to teach second language (second language teaching competence). Second language competence, has reference to '*a person's ability to*

*create and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before ... a person's knowledge of what are and what are not sentences'* (Richards *et al.* 1985:52). The word 'proficiency' has also been used interchangeably to mean command of language (Richards & Rodgers 1995:64 & 72, and Cummins & Swain 1986:141). Brown (1994:31) discusses the distinction between competence 'the underlying knowledge of the system of a language', and performance 'the overtly observable and concrete manifestation of that competence'.

Competence in a language may also be referred to as *communicative competence*. This is because one portrays command of language not only by creating and understanding grammatical sentences accurately, but also in several other aspects, called *functions of language* (Brown, 1994:234). One for instance, must know how to pronounce words, know how to begin or end a conversation, know which address form is appropriate for whom, know how to respond to different speech acts (requests, farewells, invitations, introductions, *et cetera*), or know what is an appropriate topic to talk about when, where, and with whom, and so on. In a detailed review of literature on the subject, Brown (1994:228) reports that the term *communicative competence*, coined in 1967, has four subcategories namely: *grammatical* competence, *discourse* competence, *sociolinguistic* competence, and *strategic* competence. In this study the term 'second language competence of non-NESTs' is used interchangeably with communicative competence. Wallace (1991:58) however, prefers to use 'proficiency' to signify 'adequacy' but 'competence' to suggest the force of 'expertise'.

Since this study is about preparing teachers of English, *competence* also refers to the ability to teach second language (second language teaching competence). For this purpose the term *pedagogical skills* accurately captures this second sense of competence, and is preferred in this study. The various elements of these two broad competences will also be addressed.

### **1.3.8 Quality**

In this study, the operational understanding of the term ‘quality’ will be the notion of it as inputs and outputs (Sifuna cited in Motala & Mungadi 1999:14). Also appropriate for this study is a notion of quality as ‘fitness for purpose’ (London cited in Motala & Mungadi *op. cit.*). Quality viewed as inputs and outputs of preparation programmes for ELT refers to the array of processes (inputs) that go into producing teachers of English (outputs). Inputs include considerations of suitability of the trainee recruits, the trainers, the LTE curriculum, and all the procedures therein. The outputs refer to external efficiency in terms of the professional language teachers displaying ‘a sense of public service; high standards of professional conduct; and the ability to perform some specified demanding and socially useful tasks in a demonstrably competent manner’ (Wallace, 1991:5). The ‘fitness for purpose’ view, though more suitable to the production of gadgets and appliances, is equally relevant to LTE since it conveys the expected competence with which the language teacher accomplishes ELT.

### **1.3.9 Effective English teaching**

All reference to *effective teaching* in this study focuses on the development of teachers of English, and how intervention programmes, such as a four-year INSET programme, can

contribute to this process of development. According to Husen & Postlethwaite (1994:5930) teacher development is marked by four types of growth: growth in knowledge; growth in skills; growth in judgement; and growth in the contributions teachers make to a professional community. Effective second language teachers recognize the societal influences (such as the language policy, language attitudes, the domains of use for the TL, the status of that language, and so on) that impinge on effective education in general, and on language learning in particular. They also seek to find the best ways to overcome limitations to effective teaching arising from these influences. Effective teachers also recognize that their task in ELT is influenced by factors at whole-school level that dictate what happens at the classroom level. Such whole-school factors are peculiar and unique to the school setting and to members in class, and so, the teacher's response to them varies from individual to individual and from one school situation to the next.

## **1.4 METHODOLOGY**

As a means of situational analysis, the study examines participants in a four-year degree INSET programme of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana that prepares teachers to become subject specialists in the primary school. Participants are followed from the end of their third year of study to the end of their fourth just before they return to the field as subject specialists. Because the focus is on ELT, language specialists in the four-year programme form the main focus of study, although this is not entirely exclusive of other participants. The instruments outlined in paragraph 1.4.2 will be administered in phases at moments deemed convenient and significant during this final period of participants' stay at the University of Botswana, while document analysis will be concurrently undertaken.



#### **1.4.1 Document analysis**

The literature study that has been embarked upon in this thesis includes relevant source materials, both primary and secondary and comprising published books, research articles in periodical journals in hard copy and on the Web, as well as published and unpublished dissertations, theses and conference papers. Syllabi of courses taken by the subjects of this study at the University of Botswana, the Lesson Observation Report Form (LORF), and relevant documents from the Botswana Ministry of Education and the training institutions will also be studied.

#### **1.4.2 Qualitative and quantitative data collection**

In this thesis both qualitative and quantitative methods will be used to gather the opinions and attitudes of the subjects of this study on issues relating to their competence to teach English as a second language.

- **Lesson observation:** During the internship period at the end of their third year when the subjects of the study go back to the primary schools to practice teaching (as *internees*), recordings of select lessons will be made on audio cassettes and notes of the progress of these lessons will be taken by the researcher. Two instruments: the Park's Verbal Interaction Analysis (see Appendix E) cited in Le Roux (1996:45) and the Mitchell and Parkinson Instrument (see Appendix B ii) will be used to enable detailed analyses of the lessons observed. The recordings will be transcribed for closer analysis of the language and pedagogical competences of internees. Notes made during lesson observation will be used to determine the second language teaching attributes of the internees.

In order to allow the voices of the respondents to resonate, the following three self-report techniques will also be used:

- **A questionnaire:** The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was slightly adapted from Medgyes (1994:111-112) who, while working in Poland, used a slightly longer questionnaire (along with other instruments) to assess the English learning experiences of learners. It is expected that the adapted questionnaire will conveniently explore the English learning experiences of the subjects of this study, the variety of English they get to learn, and consequently, to teach, and their personal difficulties with English.
- **Two inventories:** The first inventories will gather data on activities that characterise ESL classrooms (see Appendix C inventory 1a). It was developed by the researcher from a discussion by Davis & Thomas (1989:98-99) of aspects of classroom management. It comprises thirty (30) classroom language activities. The aim of the investigation will be to verify the activities the respondents had ever used in their last year of teaching prior to coming to the university. Respondents will be asked to indicate the class they taught prior to coming to university before being given the following instruction: *‘Show by an ‘x’ which of the activities listed below you recall using in that class’*. The inventory will also have the following instructions: *‘In the space below write any other activities you have used in teaching English that is not listed above’*.

The second inventory (see Appendix C inventory 1b) will gather respondents’ opinions about what a teacher who was a non-NEST, needed to know in order to be

effective in organising English language classroom activities. Their responses would indicate what specific content they regarded as needed and as helpful in reinforcing those classroom activities they employed as verified by Inventory 1a. The inventory comprises topics ideal for inclusion into an INSET programme for language specialists. It is a slight adaptation from Grosse (1991:49), who used a similar one to investigate the variations in preparation programmes for ESL teachers across American colleges of education; and from Lange (1990:254), who idealised course content for ESL teachers. The 26 courses on this inventory bear some resemblance with the content of the INSET programme for language specialists at the University of Botswana. Literature on Likert Scales available on the Internet (visited in September 2002, see reference page) was scanned and a three-point Likert scale of 'least needed', 'needed', and 'most needed' was found convenient for this study.

Respondents will be given the following instructions: *'On a scale of "least needed", "needed", and "most needed" which of the topics listed would you have wished to include in a 4-year INSET course for teachers of English such as yourself? Mark with an 'x' to indicate your choice'*. The inventory also has the following instruction: *'In the space below, write anything else that you feel is necessary for the teacher of English to know about during INSET'*.

The two inventories (1a and 1b) will be administered on the same day.

- **Personal interviews:** designed to record the opinions of a representative sample of interviewees regarding several aspects pertaining to their roles as ELT-specialists-to-be. Each interview session, lasting not longer than fifteen minutes, will begin with the following instructions: *Please feel free to respond. This information will remain confidential, and your name will not be mentioned.* An Interview Schedule Guide (see Appendix B i) will be used. Sessions will be tape-recorded.

The sequence of four phases below will be followed in administering the instruments on the participants in their third and fourth (final) year at the University of Botswana:

- Phase I (end of 3<sup>rd</sup> year): Administer questionnaire on all 96 third year students during orientation week just before internship
- Phase II (during the University of Botswana long vacation): Observe a sample of language specialist internees teaching English
- Phase III (mid 4<sup>th</sup> year): Administer both inventories on the forty (40) language specialists upon their return from internship
- Phase IV (end of 4<sup>th</sup> year): Hold interviews on a sample from the 40 language specialists.

Developments from document analysis outlined in 1.4.1, and from the qualitative and quantitative data collection outlined in 1.4.2, are:

- The knowledge base crucial to selecting classroom activities in second language teaching (*chapter two*); and

- The pedagogical skills considered by non-NESTs to be crucial to efficient and effective ELT (*chapter three*).
- A conceptualization of the perceived linguistic difficulties of non-NESTs (*chapter four*).
- An INSET model that responds to the *knowledge* (verified in Chapter Two), *skills* (verified in Chapter Three), and *attitudes* (verified in Chapter Four).

### 1.4.3 Data Analysis

Analyses will be conducted on the quantitative and the qualitative data. Presentation and discussion will form part of the focus of different chapters as follows:

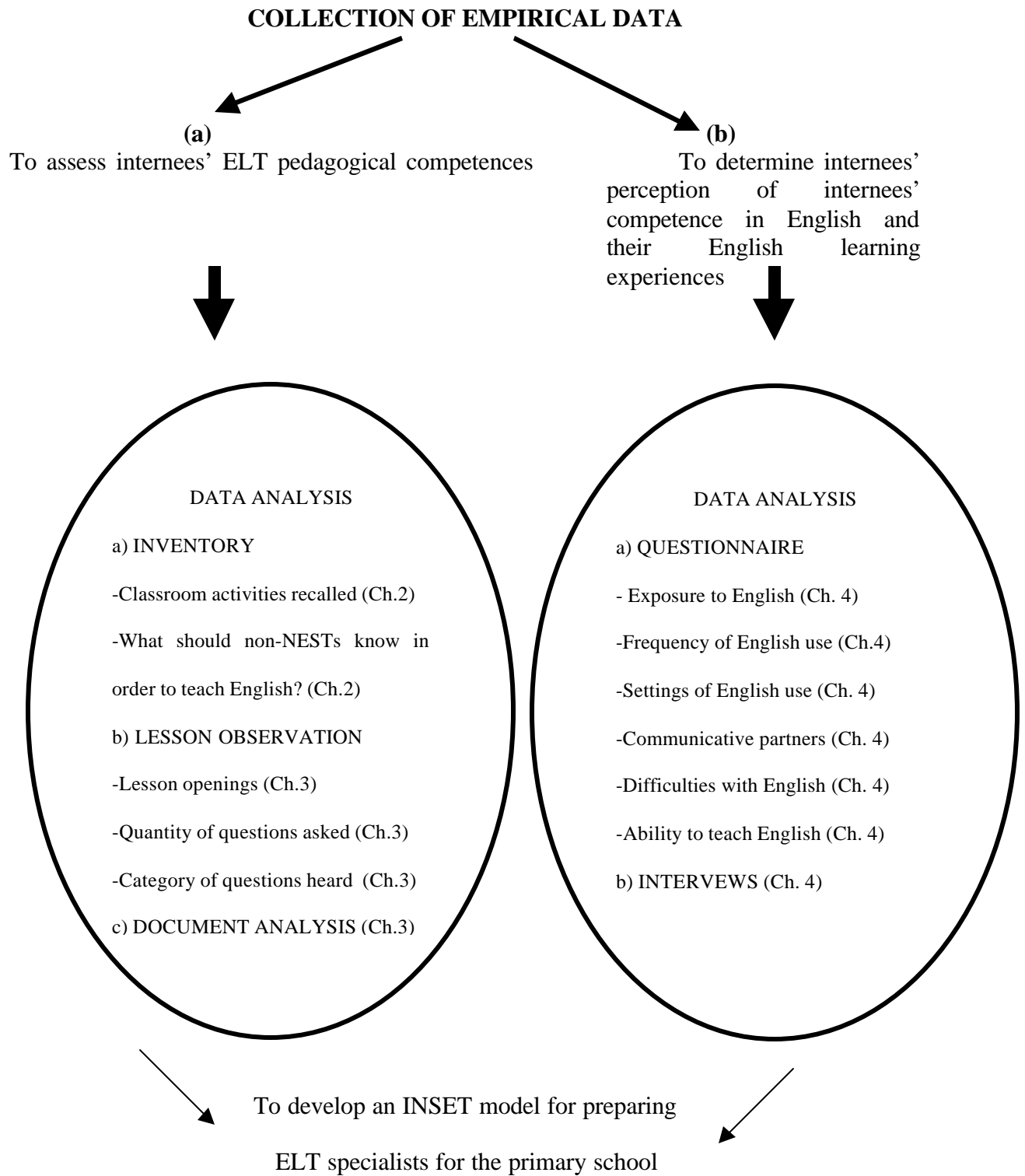
- Data from the two inventories will contribute to the discussion of ‘activities conducted in ESL classrooms’ (Chapter 2)
- Data from lesson observation and document analysis will contribute to the discussion of ‘pedagogical skills crucial to non-native English-speaking teachers’ (Chapter 3)
- Data from the questionnaire and interviews will contribute to the discussion of ‘perceived difficulties of non-native English-speaking teachers (Chapter 4).

In order to determine the level of confidence of non-NESTs to teach English, and whether there are second language teaching needs that are being ignored by the preparation programme under study, these analyses will contribute to the investigation in the following two aspects:

- The ELT pedagogical skills (*English language teaching competence*) of internees, and
- The internees’ perception of their *English language competence*.

Figure 1.2 summarises the investigation conducted in this study, and shows the chapters where the results will be presented and discussed.

Figure 1.2 Summary of investigation



#### 1.4.4 Multiple methods approach

In order to cross check the accuracy of informants' responses, a combination of self-report techniques (viz. a questionnaire, inventories, and interviews) is used in this thesis in addition to document analyses and lesson observation. Bogdan & Biklen (1998:104) observed that 'many sources of data were better in a study than a single source because multiple sources led to a fuller understanding of the phenomena you were studying'. Research on the working lives of teachers in various areas of specialisation has tended to use interviews. For example, Fressler and Christensen (1992) studied 160 K-12 American teachers. Huberman (1994) interviewed 164 secondary school teachers in Geneva and Vaud cantons of Switzerland; and Sikes Measor, & Woods (1985) examined the lives of 40 secondary school teachers of science and art in England. In each of these studies, the major research technique was the use of *multiple extended, semi-structured interviews*.

The above studies offer evidence of a number of methodological and theoretical insights regarding the use of interviews in research. The large volume of data that interviews yield carries the risk of distorting phenomena. Huberman (*ibid.*), for example, admits that although developing a generalised model on the basis of large numbers of individual interviews may reflect general patterns in the data, the resulting model may not be an accurate portrayal of any other teacher's life. Secondly, when used alone, interviews lead to a disturbing assumption that there is a transparent and unproblematic relationship between "the word and the world" (Burman & Parker 1993:5). Unfortunately however, what one hears from interviewees may not be what the truth is.



Johnston's (1995) doctoral study on whether Polish EFL teachers have careers attempts to overcome the methodological flaws of earlier studies by interviewing a smaller number of teachers using a tape recorder. His study involved a small population of 17 informants who represented a wide range of teachers in accordance with the principle of maximum variation sampling. The strength of Johnston's (1995) study is that it is richly grounded in the tradition of qualitative research, and empowers the respondents by allowing their voices to resonate, and gives penetrative information on the life of an EFL teacher.

The above insights are helpful in the option for using a multiple methods approach in this study.

## 1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

In *chapter two* activities conducted in ESL classes, and the theoretical underpinnings of these activities are verified. The activities that characterize English language classrooms are determined by the teacher's view of second language teaching and learning. Classroom activities therefore are a convenient means of verifying the teacher's *knowledge* of ELT, and will be verified with the help of the two inventories explained in 1.4.2.

Using document analysis and recordings of actual lessons, *Chapter three* will explore the pedagogical *skills* crucial to non-NESTs thus:

- Assumptions about teaching of non-NESTs
- Teaching competences of non-NESTs

The verification of ELT competences will lead to a statement about the teaching *attributes* of non-NESTs. Such attributes can be targeted for emphasis during INSET.

Using the questionnaire, interviews, and notes from lesson observation, *chapter four* will examine the English learning experiences of non-NESTs and thereafter verify what non-NESTs perceive to be their *difficulties* with the English language. The chapter will proceed under the following themes:

- Perceived language competences of non-NESTs
- The variety of English taught in the classroom

The hypothesis (*that the confidence of non-NESTs, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their second language teaching, was low due to their perceived difficulties with the English language*) will be addressed.

The framework provided by chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 will provide background against which to propose, in *chapter five*, an INSET programme as a model for non-NESTs. The proposed model will focus on the *received knowledge* and *experiential knowledge* (Wallace 1991:13) offered to language specialist trainees preparing for the conferment of the Bachelor of Education degree in primary education. The research problem (*What are the essential components of a training programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in primary schools?*) is then addressed. Conclusions and recommendations are drawn in *chapter six* regarding the use of the model as an INSET intervention programme for non-NESTs.

## CHAPTER TWO

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### ACTIVITIES CONDUCTED IN ESL CLASSROOMS

#### Contents

- 2.1 INTRODUCTION
- 2.2 WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO KNOW A SECOND LANGUAGE?
  - 2.2.1 Second language viewed as mental exercise
  - 2.2.2 Second language viewed as primarily speech
  - 2.2.3 Second language viewed as stimulus-response chain
  - 2.2.4 Second language viewed as purposefully communicative
- 2.3 TEACHER TALK AS SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ACTIVITY
  - 2.3.1 Teacher talk as second language classroom activity
  - 2.3.2 Differences between teacher talk and communication outdoors
  - 2.3.3 Characteristics of teacher talk
  - 2.3.4 Second language teaching materials and teacher talk
  - 2.3.5 'Teacher proof' second language teaching materials
  - 2.3.6 Synthesis
- 2.4 CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHERS
  - 2.4.1 Method of investigation
  - 2.4.2 Results and discussion
    - 2.4.2.1 Activities respondents use in the teaching of English
    - 2.4.2.2 Respondents' views on the English language INSET course
- 2.5 CONCLUSION

## **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The activities that characterize English language classrooms are informed by the teacher's view of second language teaching and learning. Quite often the teacher reproduces these views more from his or her own English learning experiences rather than from the level of training received. For this reason, teachers teach in the way they were themselves taught guided by what they have come to believe to be what it means to know a second language.

This chapter reviews in 2.2 four theories of second language learning and how these inform classroom activities. In 2.3 the three role players in classroom language learning are identified with a view to understanding the mechanisms involved in the process of second language teaching. Two of these, the teacher and the teaching materials, constitute the input pupils 'negotiate' and are therefore discussed in detail before reporting in 2.3 the results of an investigation into, firstly, teaching activities interneers recalled using during English teaching, and secondly, the opinions of these interneers about what a language teacher needed to know in order to organize effective English language classroom activities.

## **2.2 WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO KNOW A SECOND LANGUAGE?**

In the quest for laying down the principles of second language learning and teaching, Brown (1994:2) poses a series of questions including the one above. Answers to it have been changing through the ages and these changes have generated the range of different approaches to second language teaching, which in turn inform the choice of classroom activities found in use in ESL classrooms. Four of these views are discussed in paragraphs 2.2.1- 2.2.4.

### **2.2.1 Second language viewed as mental exercise**

In this view studying a foreign language is believed to provide pupils with a good mental exercise, which helps in developing their minds (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:11), for the sake of being scholarly (Brown, 1994:16). This happens as they read what is written in the foreign language encountering and encoding difficult grammar rules, memorization of vocabulary and of declensions and conjugations, translations of texts, and doing written work (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:10; Richards & Rodgers, 1995:2; Brown, 1994:16). These procedures, called the Classical Method (also called the Prussian Method in America), were used to teach Latin, a language thought to promote intellectuality (Brown, 1994:16). Speaking Latin was not the goal, except when pupils read what they had translated, and so, the procedures later came to be called the *Grammar Translation Method*. Although the method declined in the 1940's, activities designed along this approach continue to be widely used today largely because tests of grammar rules are easy to construct and can be objectively scored (Brown, 1995:17).

### **2.2.2 Second language viewed as primarily speech**

According to Richards & Rodgers (1995:9) it was once held that foreign language learning was facilitated when the learner listened to ungraded foreign language so as to face the same difficulties as those faced by anyone who 'picks up' a language. This approach, called the *Direct Method*, was very popular in Europe in the 1920's. This method grew from a view of language as being primarily speech, and so it stressed the teaching of correct pronunciation and grammar. It simulated much from the way children learn their L1 and so, it is also variably called the 'naturalistic approach' (Brown, 1994:44).

Classroom activities arising from such a view are: reading aloud, question-and-answer, dictation, conversation practice, fill-in-blanks, and so on (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:26).

The entry of the United States into World War II was significant to the popularity of the approach. To supply personnel to work as translators of foreign languages during the war campaign, the American government requested American universities to develop foreign language programmes for soldiers (Brown, 1994:70; Richards & Rodgers, 1995:44). Working without textbooks, native speakers of a foreign language guided the participants for six weeks and it was reported to have produced excellent results mainly because of the highly motivated learners. After the war, and America emerging as a world power, there was increased immigration into America by people highly motivated to learn English, factors which further popularized this particular language teaching procedure. The procedure came to be called the audiolingual method because it stressed aural/oral skills (listening & speaking) more than reading and writing. Audiolingulism is based on contrastive analysis: the view that problems of learning a foreign language arose from the conflict of different structural systems (that of L1 versus L2). It was thought that knowing these differences facilitated teaching and learning a second language. Characteristics of classroom activities include dialogue practice, mimicry, memorization of set phrases, repetitive drills to rid utterances of errors, use of tapes and language labs, and very little use of pupils' L1. However, Brown (1994:71) noted that the method was soon criticized for its failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency. Elsewhere Brown (1994:45) rightly observed that constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background make the Direct Method difficult to use in public schools. Lange (1990:253) cites several

authorities of the early 1980's who noted how audiolingualism was 'no longer the reigning theory of language learning'.

### **2.2.3 Second language viewed as stimulus-response chain**

When language learning is viewed in a behaviorist sense it is a habit-forming mastery of specific structures that are appropriate in given situations. To facilitate second language learning the pupil practices basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. The view is rooted in descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:31). All human learning, according to behaviorists, depended on three elements of the following chain: stimulus → response → reinforcement. For second language learning to occur, when items of the second language are presented to the pupil, a response is elicited followed either by extrinsic reinforcement from the teacher in the form of praise or rejection, or by intrinsic reinforcement from the pupil's self-satisfaction after successful use of the language item. Language mastery was said to result when the pupil had acquired a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains.

Within ELT stimulus-response chains appeared in several forms such as 'frequency counts', 'general service lists of English words', and 'sentence patterns' produced by specialists Palmer, West, and Hornby (Richards & Rodgers, 1995:32). Once these were mastered, that was all a learner needed to cope with English as a second language. This approach, called the oral approach due to its emphasis that language teaching begins with the spoken language, survived into the 60's as the *Situational Language Teaching (SLT) approach* (later the term 'structural-situational approach' was introduced). The principle of situations was based on the view that new language was introduced and practiced in

meaningful situations. According to Richards & Rodgers (1995:38) characteristic activities, all teacher-directed, include guided repetition/substitution, chorus repetition, dictation, drills, controlled oral-based reading and writing, pair practice, and group work.

#### **2.2.4 Second language viewed as purposefully communicative**

This view is founded on the premise that we use language to accomplish some function, such as arguing, persuading, or promising (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:123). As speaker and listener interact, the process of communication reveals meaning being negotiated, purposefully, and appropriately. Mastering structures, therefore, did not result in the pupil repeating them without thinking about their communicative potential but as Noam Chomsky argued, the speaker produced utterances that were creative and unique. For Brown (1994:23) every sentence we speak is ‘novel, never before uttered either by you or anyone else’. Rapidly these ideas came to be incorporated into syllabuses called the Communicative Approach or the *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT). In CLT the goal of language teaching is to attain communicative competence for the learner by teaching the four language skills acknowledging that language and communication are interdependent. Some sources call it the notional-functional approach or the functional approach. Larsen-Freeman (1986:132) lists a range of activities characteristic to CLT as including: games, role-playing, and problem-solving (e.g. scrambled sentences in text) tasks performed by pupils in small groups, pairs, or triads.

#### **2.2.5 Synthesis**

The sections 2.2.2 – 2.2.4 examined the theoretical underpinnings of *what it means to know a second language* and how these inform classroom activities. Ideally, because second

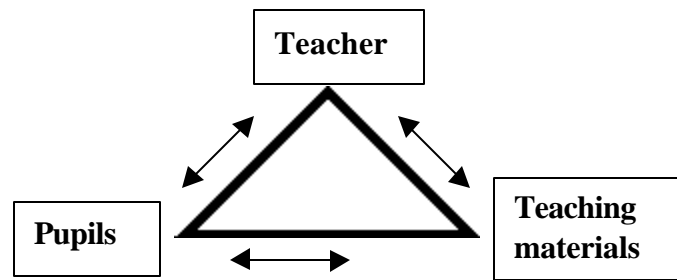


language learning is the totality of all the different views, an *eclectic view* of these theories by the language teacher is recommended. An eclectic view implies that in planning classrooms activities the teacher borrows from a range of views of what it means to know a second language. A point noted by Jenkins & Murray (1998:247) is that since all teaching in CLT is conducted in the TL, the use of CLT tends to prefer NESTs to non-NESTs. And, as noted later in paragraph 4.2.4, that non-NESTs have very little informal out of class interaction in English, it is a valid observation to say that CLT places very high demands on non-NESTs, and for that reason CLT may not be a very effective approach in ESL settings after all. Given the popularity of CLT, the challenge for LTE programmes designed for non-NESTs, is how to raise the competence of entrants to the demands of this approach. Section 2.3 examines classroom role relationships with a view to understanding the mechanisms involved in the process of second language teaching.

### **2.3 ROLE PLAYERS IN SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS**

In a discussion of how teaching methods attribute different classroom roles, Richards & Rodgers (1995:23) identify three role players in second language classroom situations, namely: the teacher, the pupil, and the materials; and then proceed to show how these roles change depending on the approach to language teaching. Ideally a symmetrical interactive process of language learning and teaching may arise between the three role players as shown in figure 2.1:

Figure 2.1 *A symmetrical interactive process of language learning and teaching*



Gruenewald & Pollak (1984:5) comment on the role relationship above as being influenced by the pupils' lack of competence for the task, the language used by the teacher, or by the language content in the task. Le Roux (1996:32) observed that in foreign [read 'second'] language instruction the pupils are 'usually restricted to a responding role... and opportunities for responding productively in the classroom are limited'.

For non-NESTs working in ESL classrooms, the proposal raises very high expectations for outcomes of LTE preparation programmes. But as Le Roux (1996:32) noted, the asymmetrical role relationships in ESL classrooms where teachers control who can talk about what, to whom and for how long, has become firmly entrenched over many years of foreign [second] language instruction in schools and has become problematic to overcome. Wright (1990:82) considers classroom role relationships a primary higher-order goal of teacher development programmes. Richards and Rodgers (1995:24) propose thorough training and methodological initiation for language teachers because 'only teachers who are thoroughly sure of their role and the concomitant learner's role will risk departure from the security of traditional textbook-oriented teaching'.

### **2.3.1 Teacher talk as second language classroom activity**

*Teacher talk* is that variety of language used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching (Richards *et al.* 1985:289). In trying to communicate with pupils, teachers often simplify their speech in various ways. They may for instance repeat themselves, slow down their speed and/or raise their voice, echo pupils' responses, gesticulate (e.g. a nod to signify acceptance of a pupil's contribution), and so on. In traditional classrooms the teacher is constantly explaining things, correcting pupils, evaluating and editing their language, summarizing the discussion and controlling the direction of the lesson. Teacher talk is therefore a significant tool in language learning and teaching. For many pupils in ESL settings teacher talk represents all that there is to hear of the English language.

Writing by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), Le Roux (1996), (Cullen 1998), and others, has helped characterize the nature of the task of language teaching by focusing on the teacher's classroom speech and showing how it differs from speech outside the classroom. This body of work has demonstrated the potential of teacher talk to serve as a medium of language learning and that it is erroneous to regard teacher-talking time as an inconvenient preoccupation that deprived pupils of opportunities to speak.

However, there are contradicting views on the benefit of teacher talk to the pupil. Using Krashen's Comprehensible Input hypothesis, Cullen (1998:179) rightly defends teacher talk as the source of comprehensible input that pupils get to process as intake. However, Le Roux (1996:39) doubts the quality of ESL pupils' output, and asks whether pupils' responses are not merely automatic reactions (in the form of single word utterances, short

phrases, and formulaic chunks) triggered by teacher questions, or whether the pupils are generating new ideas and questions on their own initiative.

### **2.3.2 Teacher talk versus communication outside the classroom**

Classroom verbal behaviour appears strange if considered outside classroom settings. Cullen (1998:181) informs us that in any formal gathering, patterns of verbal behaviour differ according to the nature and purpose of the gatherings. Thus for example, the pattern of verbal behaviour during prayers is very different from that of a board meeting, a military parade, or of a courtroom. At each of these different sessions who says what to whom is governed by a strict code that is understood and undisputed by all who are there. Brought together for pedagogical rather than social reasons the classroom is a formal gathering. Its conventions of communication are therefore unique to the context and all those present are aware of the dos and don'ts that govern its communicativeness. This observation by Cullen points to the limitations of teacher talk as an effective medium of second language learning.

### **2.3.3 Characteristics of teacher talk**

Teacher talk is characterised in many ways. One of these is by checks and balances. Gruenewald & Pollak (1984:37) identify eight checks and balances, namely, that the teacher:

- Attracts attention: *Now don't start now, just listen.*
- Indicates progress: *You see, we're really getting on the topic now.*
- Controls amount of pupils' speech: *Some of you are not joining in the silence we are trying to develop.*

- Closes/opens communication channels: *Now listen all of you.*
- Allows individuals to speak: *Neo, what were you going to say?*
- Controls content/relevance: *Now we don't want any silly remarks*
- Controls form of language: *That is not polite to say.*
- Controls understanding: *Who knows what this means?*

One other feature common to teacher talk is deliberate repetition. The extract below is characteristic of beginner English language classes:

Teacher: *Repeat after me: supermarket.*  
 Pupils: *Supermarket.*  
 Teacher: *To the supermarket*  
 Pupils: *To the supermarket*  
 Teacher: *Going to the supermarket*  
 Students: *Going to the supermarket.*  
 Teacher: *She is going to the supermarket.*  
 Pupils: *She is going to the supermarket.*

With the help of suitable teaching materials such as pictures or flash cards the supermarket can be substituted by other places: the river, the post office, the church, the football field and so on. The larger the range of flash cards, the wider the range of vocabulary for the pupils to learn. A transformation drill may vary this activity where for example; the pupils are shown how to ask, "Is she going to the supermarket?", and how to answer it in the negative or in the affirmative.

According to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975:25) teacher talk is also characterised by a predictable sequence, which they called the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence:

Initiation (by teacher) → Response (by pupils) → Feedback (by teacher)

The IRF sequence, a near-invocation of the behaviourist stimulus-response chain (see paragraph 2.2.3), is initiated by the teacher asking a pupil a question. When the pupil responds, the teacher gives feedback in the form of either a commendation, or a condemnation before initiating yet another IRF chain.

Another characteristic of teacher talk is the excessive, and sometimes exclusive, use of what are called ‘display’ questions (see paragraph 3.3.3.4). Display questions are those questions to which the teacher already has the answer but asks so that the class can *display* their understanding or knowledge. Outside the classroom, display questions would be very patronising if not rude! Instead of display questions, verbal behaviour outside the classroom employs ‘referential’ questions. Although, teachers often use both display and referential questions in the classroom, the latter are heard more often. Another feature is echoing of pupils’ responses by the teacher. Most times when the teacher repeats a pupil’s answer it is a signal to the rest of the class to make a mental note of the significant features that make the repeated answer correct or wrong.

The primary function of teacher talk is to support learning. All the peculiarities of teacher talk make up what teaching is. Knowledge of the verbal behaviour in learning situations clarifies an important issue that the success or failure of language learning is not a function of the pupils’ weakness or ability alone, but that of several linguistic factors linked to teacher talk, such as: teacher’s expectations, teacher’s encouragement, teacher’s asking ability, teacher’s manner of giving directions, or the mismatch between the teacher’s language including the materials used, and that of the pupils. Teacher talk is therefore as

important a factor in the processes of ESL teaching and learning, as is motherese to a child's acquisition of L1.

#### **2.3.4 Second language teaching materials and teacher talk**

Teachers often develop classroom activities around teaching materials. Since these are externally sourced, understanding the pattern of classroom verbal behaviour is helpful to those engaged in servicing education system such as developers of scholastic materials. Because teaching materials by themselves cannot teach language, teaching materials development becomes a futile activity unless we pause to consider how the teacher will talk through them to the pupils. Skilful talking through materials enables learning to take place. For instance a skillfully read story text accompanied by appropriate paralinguistic features such as intonation, rhythm, and facial expression appeals to pupils and promotes effective English teaching and learning. Teacher talk therefore, completes the triangular relationship of the teacher, the pupils, and the material as outlined in paragraph 2.3. Teachers' understanding of this relationship improves English teaching and learning.

Attempts to make communication outside the classroom resemble teacher talk can be made without necessarily impairing learning by increasing the authenticity of the activities. Pegrum (2000:3-9) explains in detail a range of fifteen highly interactive teacher-organized outdoor communicative activities possible within a city setting such as, identifying objects in streets/parks, following street maps/directions, a visit to a modern shop, and the like; all involving teacher talk in settings that are quite evidently authentic. The above implies, practical problems and the daunting linguistic demands placed on non-NESTs

notwithstanding, that it is possible for teacher talk to take place outside the four walls of the classroom.

### **2.3.5 ‘Teacher-proof’ second language teaching materials**

In considering the role of teaching materials in ELT, Allwright (1981:7) argues that scholastic material developers are governed by two views: a deficiency view and a difference view. According to *the deficiency view*, teaching materials are developed to save pupils from the teacher’s deficiencies, while making sure as far as possible, that the syllabus is properly covered and that the exercises are well thought out. Implied by this is the idea that in those areas of English language known to cause difficulties for non-NESTs, such as English pronunciation for example, we could rely solely on audio technology to present models of native speech to learners using pre-recorded audio cassettes. However, by undermining the teacher’s confidence, ‘teacher-proof materials’ do not succeed. If we subscribe to ‘teacher-proof materials’ in LTE, for example, it would suggest that language teacher preparation should rely exclusively on electronic materials, such as videos, for trainees to observe how ‘master’ language teachers engage in teacher talk.

Conversely, the *difference view* is less detrimental to teacher self-confidence. It holds that teaching materials serve as carriers of decisions made by someone other than the classroom teacher, not because the teacher is deficient, as a classroom teacher, but because the expertise required of materials is importantly different from that required of classroom teachers.



Allwright (1981:12) reminds us of two bits of wisdom linked to effective scholastic materials use in the classroom: firstly, that teachers are the people who have the interpersonal skills that make classrooms good places to learn in; and secondly, that we ought to consider the teacher's workload because if the teacher does all the work, the overload will result in learner 'under involvement'. Carefully developed teaching materials have a place in the ESL classroom.

### **2.3.6 Synthesis**

The foregoing has underscored the importance of the teacher's views of what it means to know a second language in determining the activities that characterise the ESL classroom. The increased linguistic demands on non-NESTs wanting to extend teacher talk beyond the classroom forces such well-intentioned teachers to resort to activities involving talking through teaching materials, mainly the textbook, or to teach the way they were themselves taught by maintaining asymmetrical role relationships discussed in paragraph 2.3.

In order to answer the research question '*What activities characterise English language classrooms conducted by non-NESTs within ESL settings?*' the study reports in 2.3 the findings from the investigation conducted on the internees, all non-NESTs, in the BEd programme at the University of Botswana.

## **2.4 SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES**

A descriptive analysis of respondents' English classroom activities was carried out. The following paragraphs proceed to verify the repertoire of classroom activities respondents possess; and the opinions of respondents about what a language teacher needed to know in

order to be effective in organising English language classroom activities. The extent to which that repertoire of activities is capable of producing effective ELT was discussed in the light of what knowing a second language implies to these respondents. These classroom activities were analysed for what implications they have on the content of a teacher preparation programme, hence the second inventory.

#### **2.4.1 Method of investigation**

Two inventories, administered on the same day, were used. Inventory 1a, outlined in section 1.4.2 (also see Appendix C) gathered data on activities that respondents recalled as characterizing their ESL lessons. Thirty-four (34) respondents, all ELT specialist internees in their final year of the University of Botswana BEd (Primary) INSET programme, returned their responses. For ease of recall, respondents were asked to indicate the teaching activity they had ever used in their last year of teaching prior to coming to the university. They were then given the following instruction: *‘Show by an ‘x’ which of the activities listed below you recall using in that class’*. The inventory concluded with the following instructions: *‘In the space below write any other activities you have used in teaching English that is not listed above’*. The aim of this aspect of the investigation was to verify the teaching activities the respondents recalled in order to typify them as ‘activities that characterize English language classrooms conducted by non-NESTs within ESL settings’. This is the sub-problem raised in paragraph 1.2.2 of Chapter 1.

Inventory 1b as outlined in 1.4.2 (also see Appendix C) gathered respondents’ opinions about what a language teacher needed to know in order to be effective in organizing English language classroom activities. It comprised topics ideal for inclusion into an

INSET programme for language specialists. Respondents were given the following instructions: *‘On a scale of “least needed”, “needed”, and “most needed” which of the topics listed would you have wished to include in a 4-year INSET course for teachers of English such as yourself? Mark with an ‘x’ to indicate your choice’*. The inventory ended with the following instruction: *‘In the space below, write anything else that you feel is necessary for the teacher of English to know about during INSET’*.

## 2.4.2 Results and discussion

The results from the two inventories and interview are reported and discussed below.

### 2.4.2.1 Classroom activities used in teaching English

The classes respondents taught a year prior to joining the University of Botswana were identified in order to satisfy the fact that activities popular to teachers in upper primary, may not be quite popular or even appropriate, in middle or lower primary. Below is the number of respondents teaching at each of the three levels (upper, middle, and lower) prior to joining the University of Botswana. The majority were teaching upper primary as shown below:

Level	Number of respondents (N= 34)
Upper (Standards 5, 6, and 7)	31
Middle (Standards 3 & 4)	2
Lower (Standards 1 & 2)	1

A count was taken of how many respondents recalled using each specific activity listed in the inventory. Responses were recorded according to the activity respondents **do not recall** using in their class prior to entering the university as Table 2.1 shows:

**Table 2.1 Respondents who DO NOT RECALL using the activity**

ACTIVITY	N=34
Presentations via CDs, records, tapes, audio-visuals, etc	28
Field trips	24
One pupil reciting	20
One pupil project	18
Debates	18
Using board games	17
Drama	17
Music/singing	16
Cross-word puzzle	15
Physical activity	15
Sight walks	15
Creative work	11
Team games	15
Checking each others work	13
Contests	13
Lecture	13
Role-playing	11
Presentations/reports by individuals or groups	11
Brainstorming	10
Impromptu speaking	10
Loud reading: one pupil after another	9
Sending a pupil to the board	8
Teacher-led discussions	6
Story-telling by one pupil	5
Question-and-answer	5
Spelling test	4
Silent reading	3
Dictation	1
Radio lesson	1
Tests	0

The list of suggested activities implied tasks that were generally regarded as interactive, enjoyable, stimulating, and learner-centred depending on the teacher's successful use of available resources. However, assuming that resources allowed, the results of this brief investigation seem to show that the least used activities are the most interactive, enjoyable,

and stimulating activities. Of the thirty-four (34) respondents, more than half do not recall having used the following interactive activities:

- Presentations via audio-visual, records, CDs, tapes (28 do not recall using these)
- Field trips (24 do not recall using this activity)
- One pupil reciting (20 do not recall using this activity)
- Debates (18 do not recall using this activity)
- One-pupil project (18 do not recall using this activity)
- Drama (17 do not recall using this activity)
- Board games (17 do not recall using this activity)
- Music/singing (16 do not recall using this activity)

Conversely, of the thirty-four (34) respondents, more than half recalled having used the activities below, the majority of which have a tendency to focus on the individual abilities of one pupil rather than those of the combined interactive effort of the group:

- Tests (all respondents)
- Dictation (only 1 respondent out of 34 does not recall using dictation)
- Radio lessons (again only 1 respondent does not recall using radio lessons)
- Silent reading (only 3 respondents do not recall using silent reading)
- Spelling test (only 4 do not recall using spelling test)
- Story telling by one pupil (only 5 respondents do not recall using this item)
- Question-and-answer (only 5 respondents do not recall using this item)
- Teacher-led discussions (only 6 respondents do not recall using this item)

- Sending a pupil to the blackboard (only 8 do not recall using this item)
- Loud reading: one pupil after another (9 do not recall using this item)
- Brainstorming (10 respondents do not recall using this item)
- Presentations by individual or groups (11 do not recall using this item)
- Lecture (13 do not recall using this activity)

The popularity of the English language tests and radio lessons is clear. Both these activities are centrally produced: the tests as Cycle Tests distributed by the Ministry of Education; and the radio lessons as broadcast for schools over the national radio station, Radio Botswana. The popularity of the radio lessons is attributed to the opportunity for variety (Allwright's 1981:7 *difference view* of teaching materials) that they bring to the classroom. As a way to avoid passive listening, pupils are required to repeat segments of the radio presenter's utterances while they listen, or to answer the radio presenter's question; thus providing some difference to the teacher's routine talking.

These findings confirm that teacher-centred activities such as teacher-led discussions, and question-and-answer dominate language classrooms in ESL settings. Variations may include loud reading by one pupil followed by another, and presentation by individual or group. Three additional activities came from two respondents: '*matching words with similar meanings*'; '*matching pictures with words*'; and '*finding hidden words in one long word*'. Manipulative activities like these can be very efficient tools in second language teaching. However, only two respondents recalled ever using them.

#### 2.4.2.2 Respondents' views on the English INSET course

Of the thirty-four (34) Inventory 1b distributed, only thirty-two (32) were returned. A computer analysis of the raw data ensured the accuracy of the means. The use of the mean as a statistic to describe the results was the accuracy with which dominant variables were identified as presented in Table 2.2. Further advantages of the mean according to Le Roux (1996:57) is that the mean can be algebraically manipulated; and can be historically proven that the sample mean is a much better predictor of the population mean than either the mode or the mean.

**Table 2.2 Respondents' views on what language teachers should know about**

Topic	MEAN
Teaching grammar	2.9
Methods of language teaching	2.9
Teaching reading	2.8
Educational psychology	2.7
Conducting research	2.7
How to interpret the English syllabus	2.7
Teaching listening	2.6
Teaching conversational English	2.6
How to set language tests	2.6
How to teach English with computers	2.5
Teaching writing	2.5
How to correct pupils' errors	2.5
How to teach large classes	2.5
Teaching speaking	2.5
Developing teaching materials	2.5
Teaching vocabulary	2.4
Philosophy of education	2.3
Evaluating teaching materials	2.3
How to deal with marking	2.3
English pronunciation	2.3
Teaching common idioms	2.1
History of education	2.1
Classroom language games	2.3
Video demonstrations of teaching	2.0
Actual classroom teaching	2.0
History of the English language	1.3

(Ranked in order of means)

The ranked order according to means highlights ‘grammar’ and ‘methods’ as crucial components of an INSET course for language specialist teachers in the opinion of the respondents.

There were abstentions on all but two inventory items: ‘methods of language teaching’ and ‘how to set language tests’. These abstentions appear to be an accurate indication that respondents abstained from responding to those inventory items they regarded as making no significant change to a language teacher’s pedagogical competence. This was a methodological weakness not identified during the piloting of this inventory. It is recommended that perhaps a five-point Likert scale should have been used instead, as follows:

1. *Not needed* 2. *Least needed* 3. *Needed* 4. *Most needed* 5. *Unsure*. This provision makes every response informative to the study.

Not many respondents took advantage of the invitation to suggest additional topics though. Only two other topics were suggested: ‘*how to teach English to remedial classes*’, and ‘*composition teaching and marking*’.

The findings from this brief survey indicate that respondents seem to agree on what they regard a language teacher should know in order to teach effectively: grammar, and methods of teaching.



## 2.5 CONCLUSION

Responses on the first inventory showed that many of the ELT activities recalled as having been used focused on the abilities of individual pupils. This may be attributed to a view of second language learning as a mental exercise, or as a stimulus-response process, rather than as language fulfilling a need for interacting with others. Traditionally in ESL settings, English has been taught not as a living, but as a dead language, like Latin, that the pupils learn *about* by listening to teacher talk. Yet, upon leaving school, pupils discover that their survival, success, and mobility in the labour market largely depend on their English language competence.

The literature reviewed has shown that the important role of teacher talk to English learning within ESL settings is comparable to that of motherese in learning the first language. Le Roux (1996:81) doubted the capacity of teacher talk to teach ESL when the quality and quantity of pupils' input were poor. The more descriptive teacher talk becomes, as implied by the responses of the two investigations, the less likely it is to result in interactiveness and effectiveness of language teaching activities. The verification of classroom activities confirms the point made in paragraph 2.3.6 that teachers teach the way they were themselves taught. Responses to the second inventory seem to indicate that the respondents are unaware of the difficulties arising from teaching and learning English using traditional approaches that stress grammar and rigid methods. The model to be proposed in Chapter 5 of this study will incorporate these findings in proposing the knowledge component of the INSET model.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

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### **PEDAGOGICAL SKILLS CRUCIAL TO NON-NATIVE ENGLISH- SPEAKING TEACHERS**

#### **Contents**

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- 3.4 CONCLUSION

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Addressed in this chapter are two questions:

- (a) Who becomes a primary school ELT specialist teacher in the INSET programme of the University of Botswana?
- (b) What are they expected to achieve as classroom language teachers?

It is hypothesized that there are specific second language teaching needs being ignored by preparation programmes for primary school ELT specialists. Using document analysis, the chapter in 3.2 examines the assumptions about (a) the entrants into the INSET programme of the University of Botswana (where the retrospective information about INSET for ELT specialists in Botswana's primary schools are ascertained), and (b) how a language lesson is expected to be organized (where what is expected of the language teacher is verified). In 3.3 the teaching competences of internees, who finally become ELT specialists, are verified from lesson observation to determine the extent to which they meet the assumptions ascertained in 3.2. Concluding observations are then made about pedagogical skills crucial for non-NESTs.

### 3.2 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE SPECIALISTS IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The researcher addressed the assumptions that underlie the preparation of primary school ELT specialists at the University of Botswana by attempting these questions: *Who becomes a primary school ELT specialist teacher in the INSET programme of the University of Botswana?* And, *what are they expected to achieve as classroom language teachers?* Document analysis is the method of investigation used to answer these two questions. An

analysis was conducted of the relevant sections of documents that included the following: the University of Botswana Calendar, the school syllabi for lower and upper primary, The Botswana Curriculum Blueprint, The Botswana Teaching Competencies Instruments (BTCl), Reports of the National Commissions on Education (RNCE), Botswana's Vision 2016, and the Lesson Observation Report Forms (LORF) used during teaching practice to assess students.

### 3.2.1 Results and discussion

The following assumptions were constructed from the above documents:

**\* Assumption 1: An INSET intervention programme improves the language teaching competences of previously ineffective teachers:** According to the Report of the National Commission on Education (RNCE 1993:60), 'an accelerated programme of in-service training should be undertaken to improve the teaching of English as a subject from standard one, with emphasis on oral communication'. This RNCE statement then is the official position on INSET programmes for purposes of language teaching in the primary school in Botswana. The statement implies that although previous practices in ELT were ineffective due to teacher inefficiency, the same 'inefficient teachers' would benefit from INSET by improving and modernising their teaching styles. According to the University of Botswana Calendar (2000/2001:131), the Department of Primary Education 'is concerned with in-service programmes to upgrade the skills of primary teacher educators such as *inspectors* and *head teachers*'. Currently, however, many of these graduates return to the primary schools as subject specialists although they teach all the subjects on the timetable.

**\*Assumption 2: The long English learning and teaching experience of the entrants is necessary for admission:** According to the University of Botswana entrance requirements,

entrants have learnt English through their school experience, first as school children up to junior (approximately ten years) or senior (approximately twelve years) school certificate, and then as ITE trainees (generally two to four years), and then as classroom teachers for a period not less than two years before coming to the university (University of Botswana Calendar 2000/2001:243). Evidence from the four-year duration of the BEd (primary) INSET programme at the University of Botswana further suggests that the longer the period of teacher preparation, the longer the exposure of the entrants to the English language, and the better for the entrants in terms of their language development. Unlike their secondary school counterparts, the entrants have not studied English language as a subject major.

**\* Assumption 3: The nature of the language situation has implications for LTE programmes:** All language teachers must be bilingually prepared in both the official and the national languages. The entrants are also bilingual (some are trilingual) because of their school experience: the country's language policy states that English is the official language and Setswana is the national language. Setswana, spoken by over 80 percent of the population as L1, is also *lingua franca* and is the language of *national pride, unity, and of cultural identity* (RNCE, 1977) (own emphasis). Social issues are largely debated in Setswana. The entrants have also been working with English as the MOI in the schools. Official communication between the teachers and the Ministry of Education, and vice versa, is in English. However, the future of LTE in Botswana appears set to change because according to Vision 2016 (1997:5 & 31) no one 'will be disadvantaged in the education system as a result of a mother tongue that differs from the country's two official

languages'. Vision 2016 adds that 'all the nation's languages must be taught to a high standard at primary, secondary and tertiary' levels of education.

**\*Assumption 4: Due to the diglossic nature of the language situation pupils must develop a bilingual (and/or multilingual) competence for different social purposes:** On completion of ten years of basic education, pupils should *'have developed the ability to express themselves clearly in English, in Setswana, and/or a third language, both orally and in writing, using them as tools for further learning and employment'* (The Primary School Syllabus: 1994:6).

**\*Assumption 5: After four years of preparation as a subject specialist, a primary school teacher is still competent to teach all other subjects:** The Botswana Ten-Year Basic Education programme has three tiers, namely: *Lower Primary* (Standards 1 - 4), *Upper Primary* (Standard 5 - 7), and *Junior Secondary* (Forms 1 – 3). The focus of this current study is on the first two tiers. According to the Curriculum Blueprint subject packaging at Lower Primary is 'broad with some subjects put together to facilitate project teaching and integration' (Curriculum Blueprint 1998:9). Music; Physical Education; Design; Art and Craft are all combined to form the subject *Creative and Performing Arts*; Agriculture; Home Economics; and Science are combined to form *Environmental Sciences*; while Religious Education, Moral Education, and Social Studies are taught as *Cultural Studies*. Only *Setswana*, *English* and *Mathematics* are taught as separate subjects. At Upper Primary, 'in order to provide prerequisite skills for junior secondary curriculum', there are eight subjects, namely: *Agriculture, Religious and Moral Education; Setswana; Creative and Performing Arts; English; Mathematics; Science; and Social Studies*. At both Lower and Upper levels, one teacher teaches all these subjects. The dilemma is how to

retain current teacher workforce establishment, whose subject content knowledge across these subjects is doubtful, without compromising teacher effectiveness. Since no one knows everything, it helps the primary school teacher's confidence when s/he identifies with one discipline and can deal with it competently. Therefore the use of INSET to prepare subject specialists for the primary school, as noted in RNCE 1993:60, is strongly supported. On completion of the INSET programme, participants will return to the schools to teach all subjects on the timetable, including English, using English as MOI.

**\*Assumption 6: Communicative Language Teaching is the approach preferred by syllabus designers:** Because the focus of classroom ELT is communication, the syllabi for English in Lower and Upper Primary does not prescribe grammar items. Language is not presented as content nor are clear-cut syllabus specifications provided. Instead it provides general and unsequenced settings for language use in listening, writing, speaking, and reading. Commenting on how non-NESTs organize lessons in an ESL classroom, Millrood (1999:3) observed that a lesson is usually declared communicative though in reality, teachers and pupils spend a lot of time dealing with grammar structures. The author also noted that it is the teacher who invites the pupils to speak and that pupils' contributions are called 'answers' which means that they come as responses to a teacher's question; and that a lesson is usually result-oriented, and it is the result, not the activity, which is considered primary. While these observations reflect a rigid and restrictive language lessons, they are expected and teachers can face stiff resistance from colleagues, pupils and their parents, if they fail to justifiably organize lessons in this manner.

**\*Assumption 7: A reflective INSET model of teacher preparation is preferred to one that develops discrete knowledge, skills, and attitudes:** The INSET programme for

subject (including ELT) specialists at the University of Botswana appears to have adopted a '*teacher development*' position. This is because specific classroom techniques of language teaching are reflected upon rather than rigorously taught and demonstrated as is done for ITE programmes. At the commencement of this current study, all participants were required to complete internship commencing with a week's observation. Since academic year 2001/02 this requirement has now been replaced by a school-based research project to be conducted by the participant. In addition participants receive a theoretical foundation in education in general, and in their specialisation. For ELT specialists, the materials used, such as textbooks, are largely those for preparing NESTs. It seems that the ELT skills of NESTs and non-NESTs are assumed to be homogeneous.

**\*Assumption 8: A language lesson must have an introduction, development, and a conclusion.** According to the Botswana Teaching Competencies Instruments (BTCI), instruments which are used by primary school heads to supervise teachers; and the Lesson Observation Report Form (LORF) of the Faculty of Education of the University of Botswana, teachers are expected to organise lessons in three parts: *the introduction*, *development*, and *the conclusion*. Teachers are also expected to link the content of each of these lesson segments *meaningfully*. They must also maintain a central teacher position, for example, in integrating lesson content and the scheme of work; in being lively; in using spiral questions; in showing mastery of subject matter; and in providing a comprehensive summary of the lesson. The LORF also implies that during the lesson, the teacher regulates pupils' participation as a means of strict classroom control, but must also provide *pupil-centred* activities. Lecturers use the LORF during teaching practice to assess teacher trainees. Both the LORF and BTCI measure observable teacher behaviours.



### 3.2.2 Synthesis

The foregoing highlighted the underlying assumptions of INSET for language teaching in Botswana's primary school system. Subject specialists teaching in primary school systems are rare not only in Botswana, but also elsewhere within ESL countries. Graduates of the INSET programme at the University of Botswana are learning to fit into new role expectations as ELT specialists without models in the schools to help them along. Opportunities for participants to observe how subject specialists function in the secondary school context would not be quite helpful either.

What then is being ignored by subject specialist preparation programmes for primary schools, such as the INSET programme at the University of Botswana, is stated as follows: When future responsibilities and tasks are not clear to participants, INSET participants passively complete the preparation programme, their goals being the final conferment of the degree, the new salary scale, and the better promotion prospects ahead. The INSET lecturers' goal on the other hand, that of allowing participants to refine their language teaching competences through reflection, will be pursued from a strongly academic position. The resulting mismatch in lecturers' and students' goals negatively impacts on the effectiveness of the current INSET programme to impart new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to participants. Therefore, the choice of who becomes an ELT specialist, and what s/he is expected to achieve as a classroom language teacher, has strong implications for the effectiveness of the preparation programme.

So as to validate the observation made above, the researcher proceeded to determine the pedagogical competences displayed by ELT internees after completing three of the four years of study at the University of Botswana. Section 3.3 below reports the results obtained from the observation of internee classroom teaching.

### **3.3 ELT COMPETENCES OF INTERNEES**

In order to determine the pedagogical competences crucial for non-NESTs, a detailed analysis of fifteen (15) English lessons taught by internees that were observed by the researcher was conducted. The methodology employed in this section is discussed under four main headings:

- The design of the investigation
- The characteristics of the subjects
- How data was analysed
- Results and discussion

#### **3.3.1 Design of the investigation into the ELT competences of internees**

The study followed a descriptive design. The progress of fifteen (15) English lessons taught by ELT specialist internees was carefully transcribed (see Appendix D). The lessons were recorded on separate days in eight different primary schools and classrooms around the capital city, Gaborone. The timing of this investigation captured a significant moment in the lives of the subjects of this study: they had just finished their third-year university examinations and were attending a one-month internship (hence the reference '*internees*') session in the primary schools. It was assumed that this was a crucial moment for these students to take stock, as it were, of their competences to teach English effectively and

efficiently as a result of their INSET experience. By observing how they taught English, the researcher would establish the extent to which the INSET programme goals were being met. Consequently, the pedagogical competences crucial for non-NESTs would be ascertained.

### **3.3.2 Characteristics of the subjects**

Prior to joining the University of Botswana, the internees, all non-NESTs, had taught in primary schools in different parts of Botswana for a period exceeding eight years. Of the fifteen internees whose lessons were recorded and transcribed, one of these internees is male and the rest, female. Their ages range between thirty and forty-seven years. Two of the internees have a Diploma in Education (primary) as their highest qualification but the rest have a Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC). At the time of the study the internees were all participants in the INSET programme leading to the conferment of the BEd (primary) degree of the University of Botswana.

The above information on these internees can be said to mirror that of the population of past, present, and future INSET participants in the BEd (Primary) programme of the University of Botswana. Because the label ‘non-NESTs’ correctly describes these subjects, the findings of this specific investigation on second language teaching competences of the internees are generalisable for other non-NESTs in Botswana (and perhaps other ESL countries) in the following respects:

- The internees are bilingual (some are trilingual in a third language) in English and in the pupils’ language,
- The internees are trained teachers and have relevant qualifications,

- The internees possess English language teaching experience,
- The teaching environments e.g. pupils' age-ranges (7-13 years); the teacher-pupil ratios (1:35); *et cetera*, are typical of many primary schools.

They were assured of complete anonymity of their individual identities.

### **3.3.3 Data collection and analysis**

A cassette tape recorder operated by the researcher was used to record each of the fifteen lessons as it progressed. The recording was later transcribed (see Appendix D). The researcher made notes as the lessons were being recorded.

So as to obtain a detailed description of classroom interaction, a translated version of a category system called the Park's Verbal Interaction Analysis (VIA) cited in Le Roux (1996:45) was found convenient in this part of the investigation to determine the level of interaction between the internee and the pupils in the lessons recorded on audiocassette. VIA (see Appendix E for a detailed description of VIA) uses the following 11 categories for teacher's (*read* internee's) verbal discourse:

**C1** Terminal Response (in this study, C1 is coded *terminal*)

**C2** Continual Response (coded *continual*)

**C3** Criticizing Response (coded *criticizing*)

**C4** Accepting Reaction (coded *accepting*)

**C5** Integrating Reaction (coded *integrating*)

**C6** Rejecting Reaction (coded *rejecting*)

**C7** Informal Structuring (coded *informal*)

**C8** Imparting (coded *imparting*)

**C9** Instructing (coded *instructing*)

**C10** Question to an individual pupil (coded *pupil*)

**C11** Question to the group (coded *group*)

Each of the above verbal behaviours has an effect on pupils' discourse, which VIA categorises as follows:

**C12** Correct Response (coded *correct*)

**C13** Incomplete Response (coded *incomp*)

**C14** Wrong Response (coded *wrong*)

**C15** Reaction to a Teacher (internee) Contribution (coded *t/contr*)

**C16** Reaction to Another Pupil Contribution (coded *p/contr*)

**C17** Pupil Question: Primary Information (coded *pr/info*)

**C18** Pupil Question: Secondary Information (coded *sec/info*)

A computer package, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), was used to analyse the relative frequency distribution, compute means and generate diagrammatic presentations of data.

Further analyses were made by comparing the lesson openings to determine their capacity for providing a stimulating beginning. The main segments of each of the 15 lessons was also analysed for similarities and differences using the Mitchell and Parkinson Instrument (Malamah-Thomas 1987:61). Appendix B.ii shows the parts of the MPI. Because questions form a significant feature of classroom language, the quantity and quality of the questions heard in the 15 lessons were manually analysed. Further analysis involved studying what internees regarded as errors in pupils' speech and the correction techniques that were used

to correct the errors. The internees' command of the subject matter of English was analysed as revealed in the 15 lessons observed. Lesson observation notes made by the researcher as the internees' lessons were being recorded were also analysed for teaching attributes demonstrated by the internee.

The analyses exposed the underlying competence of each individual internee in the following aspects of the lessons:

- Competence of the internee to provide an interactive English lesson
- Competence of the internee to provide a stimulating opening to the lesson
- The quantity and quality of questioning by the internee and pupils
- What the internees regarded as language errors
- The internees' command of subject matter
- The internees' second language teaching attributes

The results from VIA are presented first (in paragraph 3.3.3.1 below), to be followed by those on lesson openings in 3.3.3.2, and finally those on lesson segments using MPI in paragraph 3.3.3.3.

#### *3.3.3.1 Level of classroom verbal interaction*

As shown in figures 3.1 to 3.15, the pattern of verbal behaviour varied from lesson to lesson depending on the topic. This is to be expected since classroom verbal behaviour is largely dictated by lesson topic, which in turn, dictates the classroom activity, among other factors.

Verbal behaviour in a Standard 6 comprehension lesson: In figure 3.1 the interaction was evenly distributed between the internee and pupils. About 14% of the interaction was devoted to the internee giving instructions (coded *instruct*) and pupils asking questions (coded *p/info*) to obtain information related to the lesson (14%). The internee offered encouragement to pupils with continual responses about 10% of interaction time (coded *continual*). These are positive factors, as they do not result in passive pupils. Equally positive is the even distribution at 8% of the internee's questions to individual pupils (coded *pupil*) and to the group (coded *group*); and these questions are answered correctly (coded *correct*) 8% of interaction time.

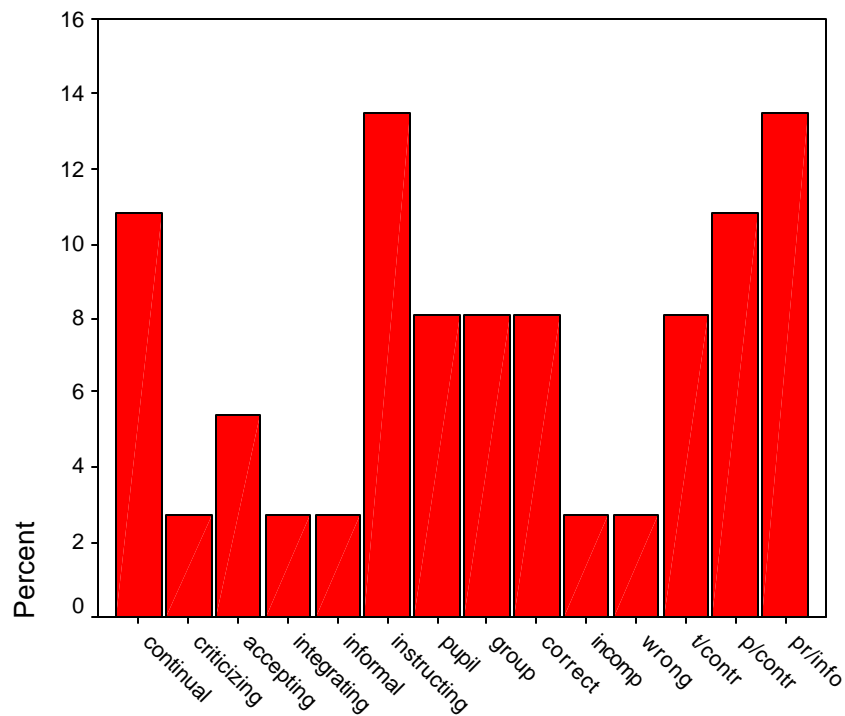


Figure 3.1 Progress of a Standard 6 Comprehension lesson

Verbal behaviour in a Standard 6 lesson entitled 'a football match': Figure 3.2 is characteristic of a very internee-centred lesson. About 25% of interaction time was devoted either to posing questions to the whole class (coded *group*), which were correctly (coded *correct*) answered 20% of the time, or to individuals (10%), or integrating (coded *integrating*) pupils' answers into the lesson (15%) and instructing (9%).

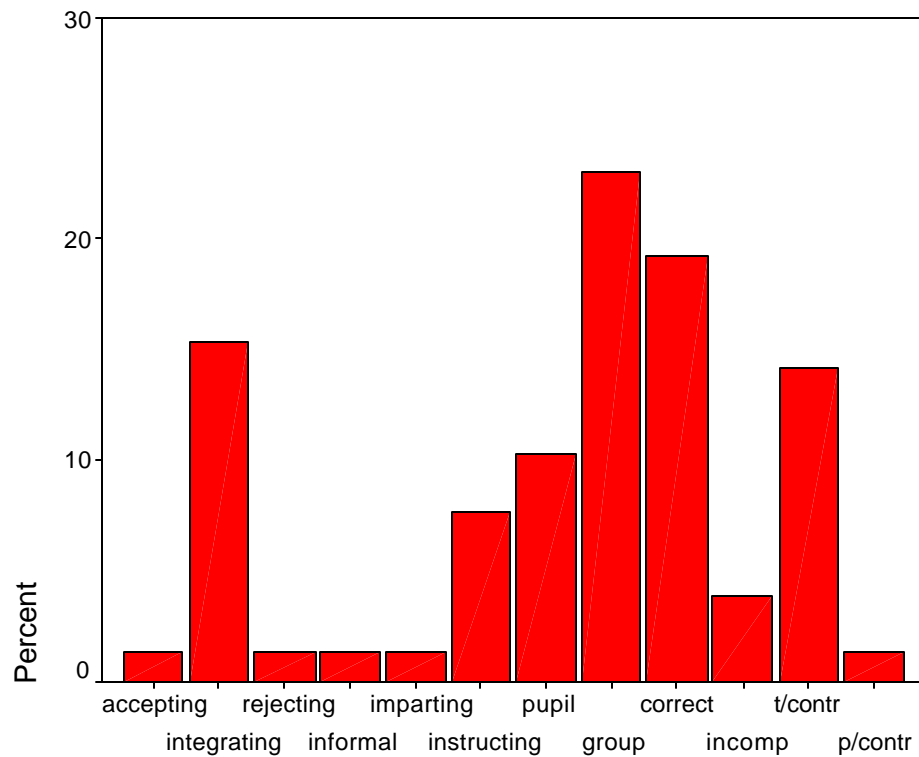


Figure 3.2 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: 'A match'



Verbal behaviour in a Standard 4 lesson entitled ‘a domestic accident’: Figure 3.3 also represents a very internee-centred lesson dominated by questions directed at the entire group (38%) and answered correctly most of the time (38%). About 8% of the lesson featured the internee’s acceptance (coded *accept*) of the pupils’ verbal input, and about 7% either one-way communication from the internee (coded *imparting*), or issuing instructions to pupils (7%).

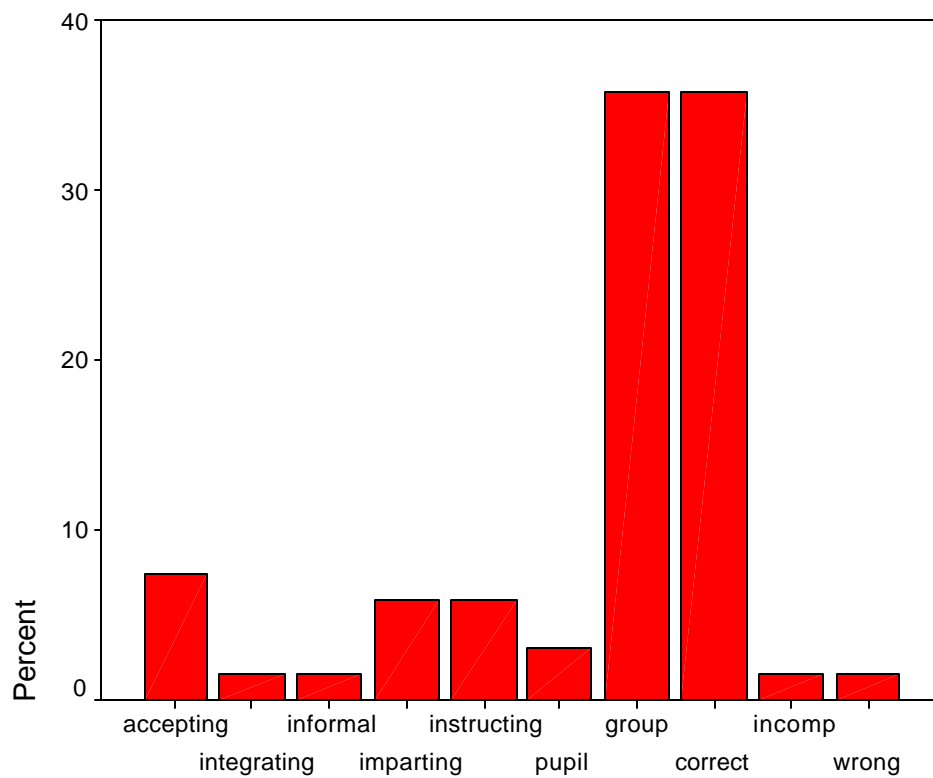


Figure 3.3 Progress of a Standard 4 lesson: ‘An accident’

Verbal behaviour in a Standard 4 lesson intended to be speeches prepared by pupils: The lesson in figure 3.4 represents the frustration of a well-intentioned internee. The speakers were unable to sustain the lesson resulting in the internee issuing instructions (38%), asking questions to individual pupils (19%), criticizing (coded *criticizing*) pupils (5%), integrating pupils' input (5%), or making informal (coded *informal*) remarks (5%). Pupil's discourse mainly consisted of correct answers (14%) to the internee's questions and reaction to the internee's contribution (coded *t/contr*) about 14% of the time.

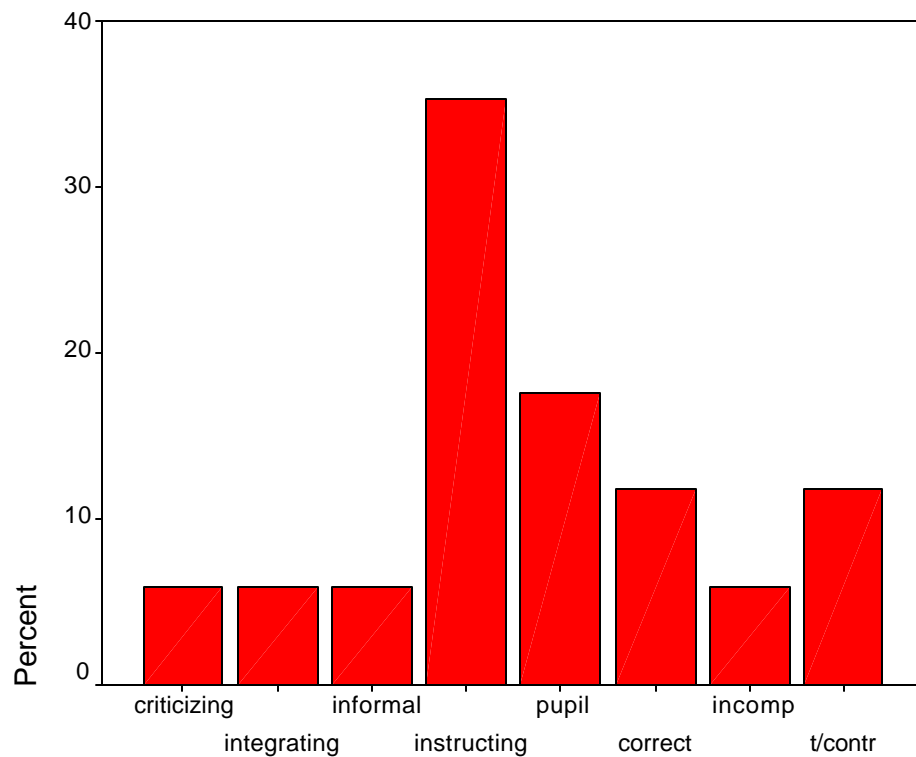


Figure 3.4 Progress of a Standard 4 lesson: 'A speech'

Verbal behaviour in a Standard 6 lesson on the past simple tense: The lesson represented in figure 3.5 is dominated by internee discourse: issuing instructions about 24% of the time; questions directed at individual pupils (21%), and to the whole group (12%); integrating pupils' input (9%); or accepting such input (3%). Pupils' discourse was mainly in the form of verbal reactions to the internee's contribution (18%) and correct answers to the internee's questions (12%).

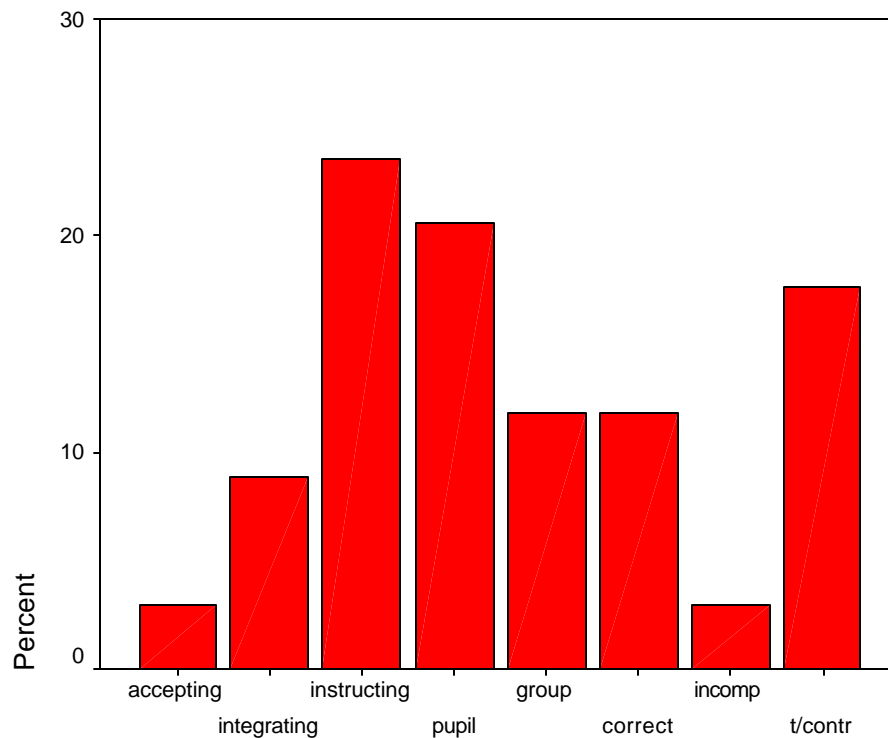


Figure 3.5 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: Past Simple

A reading lesson in Standard 4: Figure 3.6 represents an interactive reading lesson taught by a very energetic internee, in which questions directed at the whole group (18%) and at individual pupils (17%) dominate. Pupil discourse is in the form of answers to the teacher's questions (18%) and reactions to the teacher's contribution 10% of the verbal interaction time. The pattern that emerges is one where the internee is either accepting pupils' input (8%), or rejecting it (7%), or issuing instructions (7%), or engaged in one-way communication (5%).

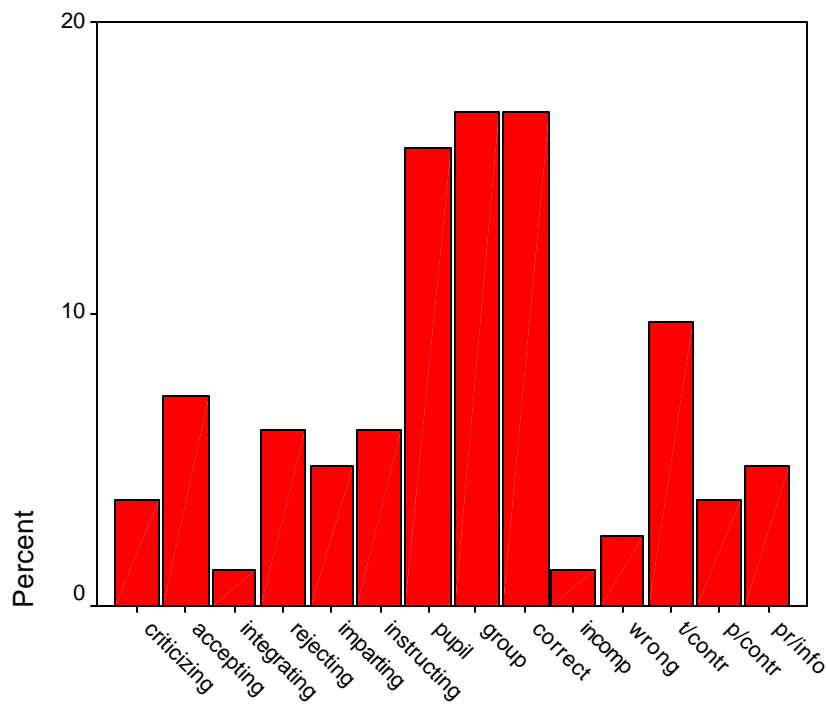


Figure 3.6 Progress of a Standard 4 reading lesson

Verbal behaviour in a loud reading lesson in Standard 4: Figure 3.7 represents verbal interaction arising from loud reading by one pupil followed by another and another. Questions directed at individual pupils by the internee dominate (28%) the interaction. Pupils' asking questions to gain more information to the lesson content is impressive at 14% of interaction time. This is attributed to the internee's saying: 'ask each other questions to see if who was listening'.

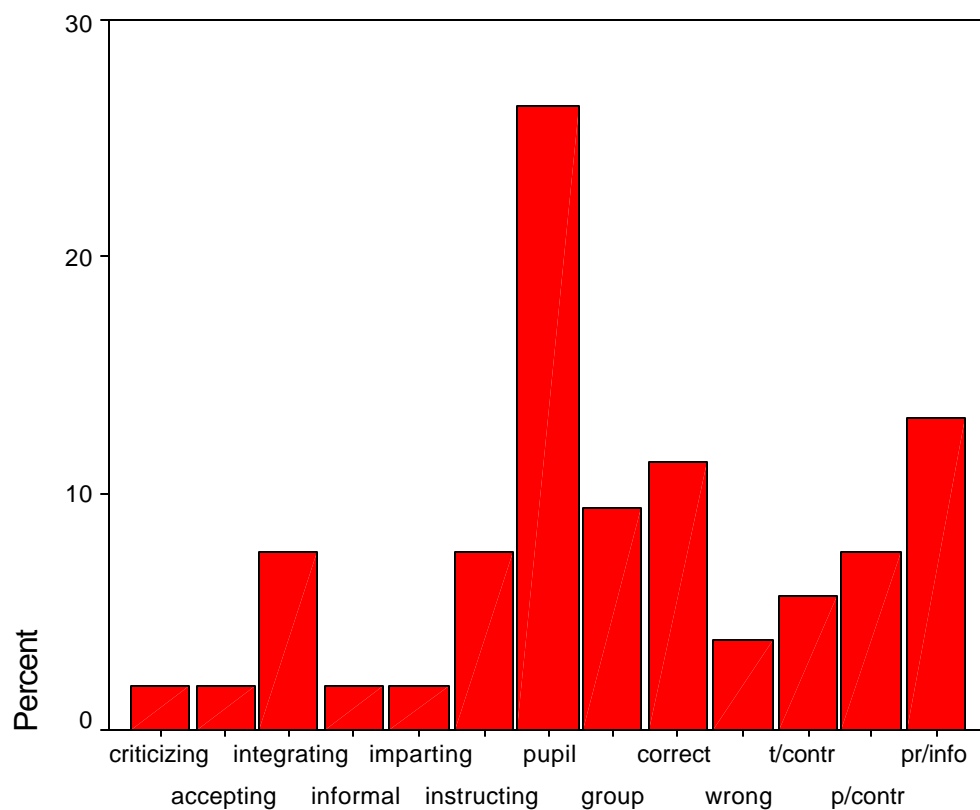


Figure 3.7 Progress of a Standard 4 reading lesson

Teaching the present continuous tense in a Standard 6 class: In figure 3.8 the internee was either issuing instructions 20% of the time, or directing questions to the whole group 20% of the time. Some of the pupils' correct responses (28%) were examples the internee had asked for.

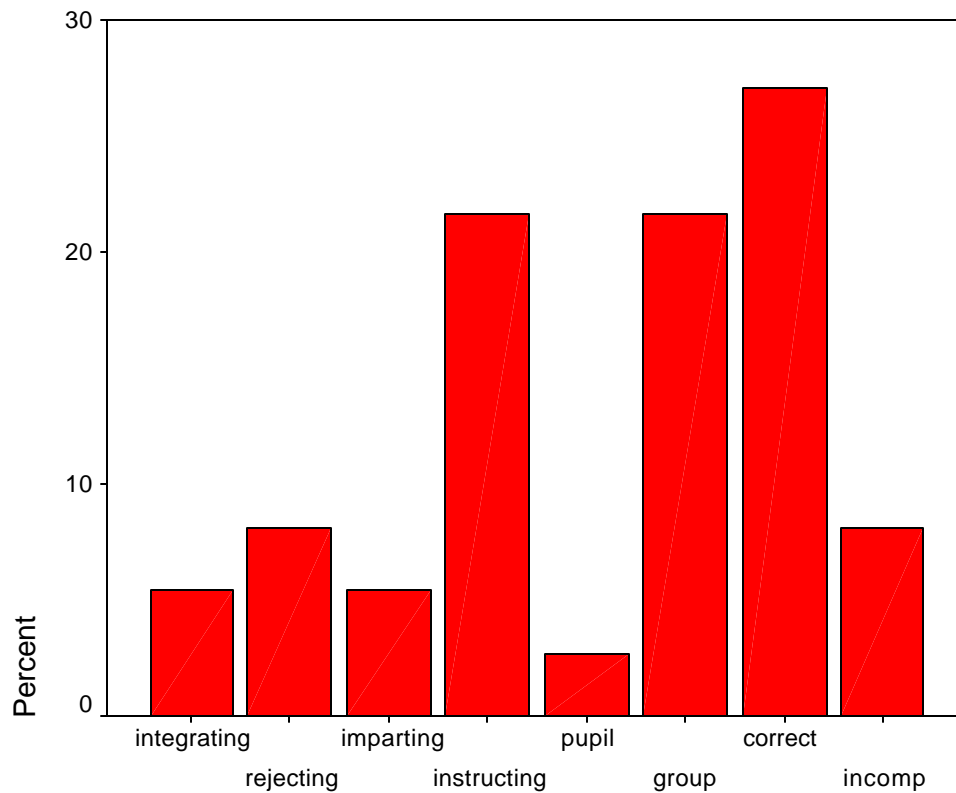


Figure 3.8 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: the present continuous tense

A Standard 4 English lesson on ‘road safety’: Questions directed at the whole group dominated (38%) the lesson in figure 3.9. If not asking questions, the internee was issuing instructions (18%), imparting (8%), integrating pupils’ answers into the lesson (8%), or accepting their input (5%).

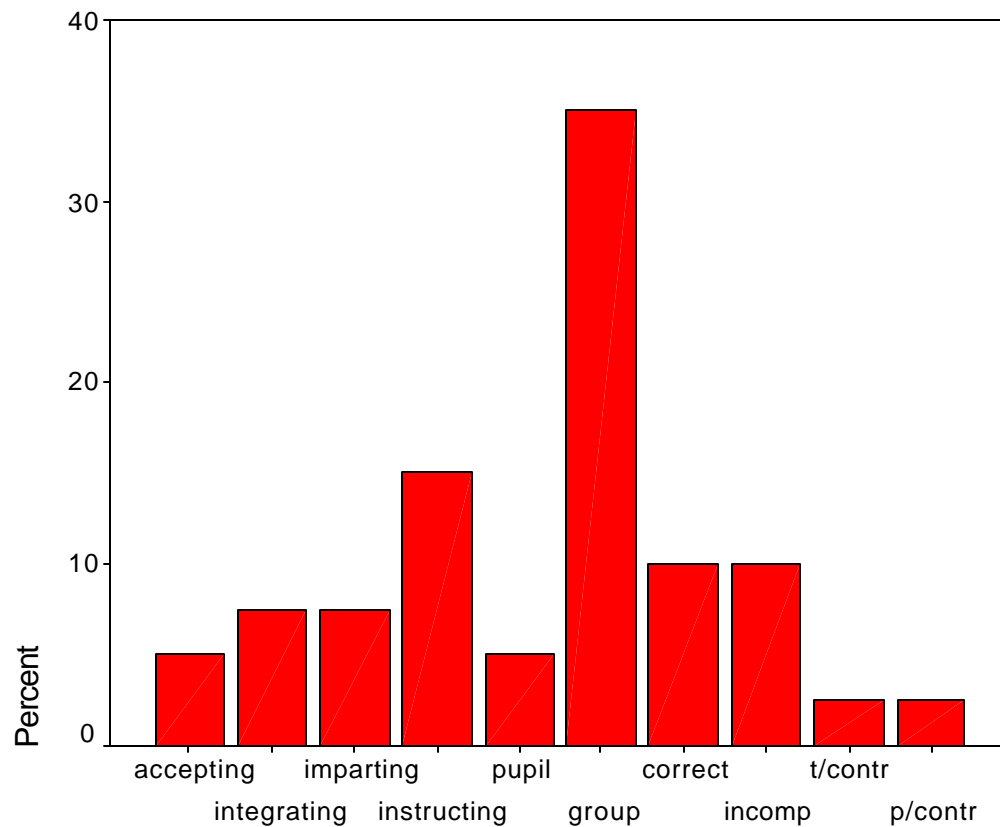
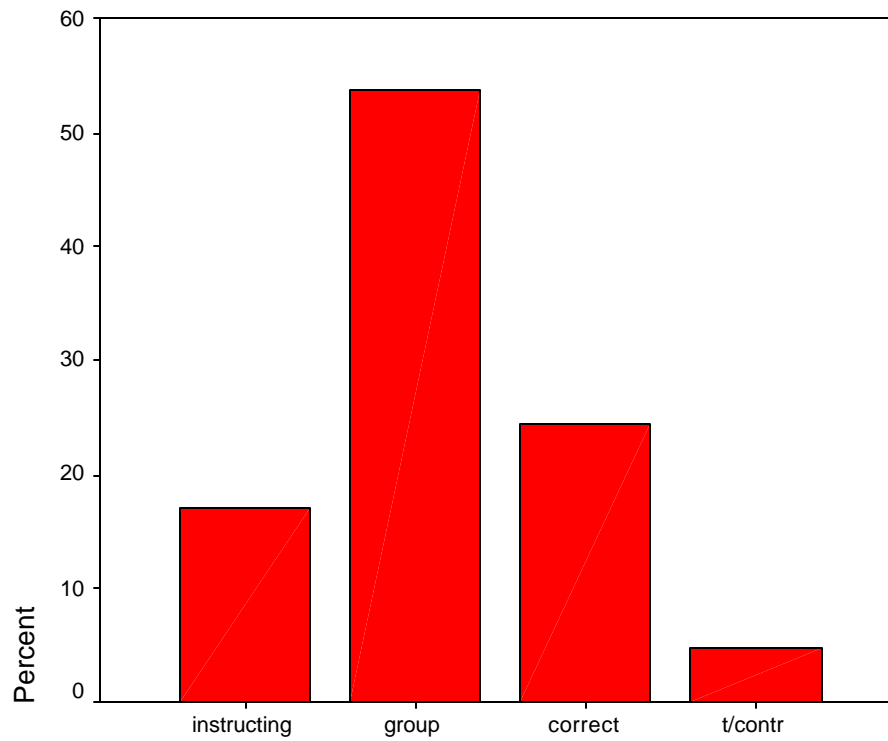


Figure 3.9 Progress of a Standard 4 lesson: ‘Road Safety’

A listening comprehension lesson in Standard 6: The pattern emerging in figure 3.10 is attributed to the content of the listening comprehension lesson. The question had to be directed at the group (52%) because the internee was testing the pupils' capacity to listen and understand a loud reading of an English passage.



*Figure 3.10 Progress of a Standard 6 listening comprehension lesson*



A Standard 4 storytelling lesson: Figure 3.11 shows the pupils' reaction to another pupil's contribution (coded *p/contr*) was the overwhelming factor (32%) after the internee's questions directed to the group (40%). This is attributed to the capacity of pupil storytelling to appeal to the class.

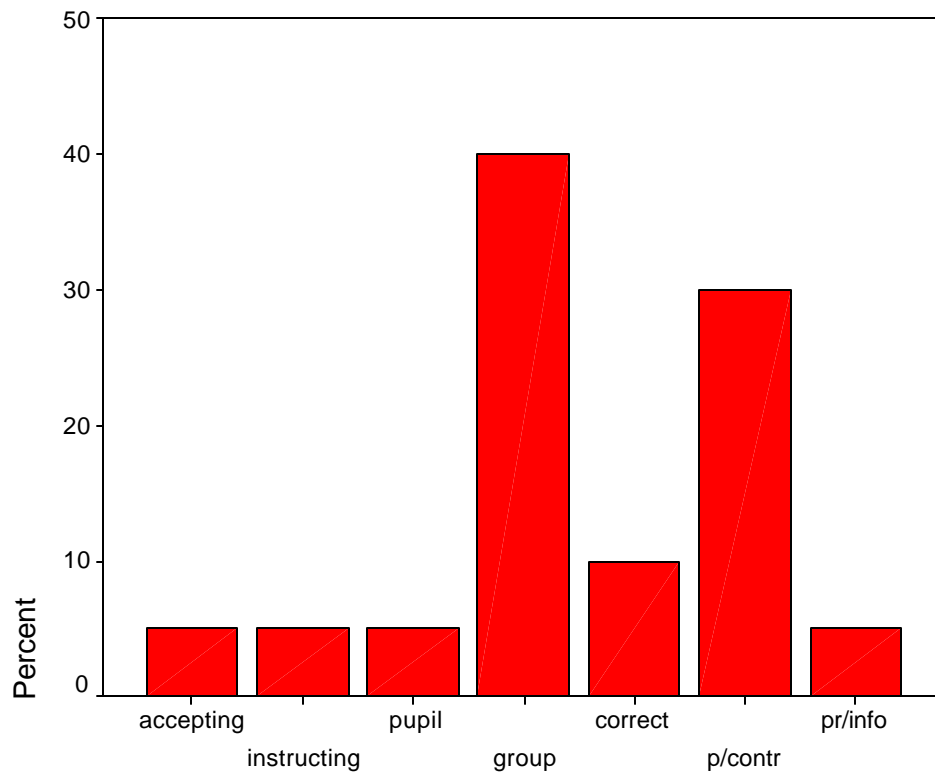


Figure 3.11 Progress of a Standard 4 storytelling lesson

Verbal behaviour in a speaking activity entitled 'my family': Figure 3.12 shows correct responses occurring 60% of verbal interaction time without a corresponding number of questions to the group (only 10%) followed by brief one-way communication (15%), accepting (5%), integrating (5%), and informal structuring (5%) by the internee.

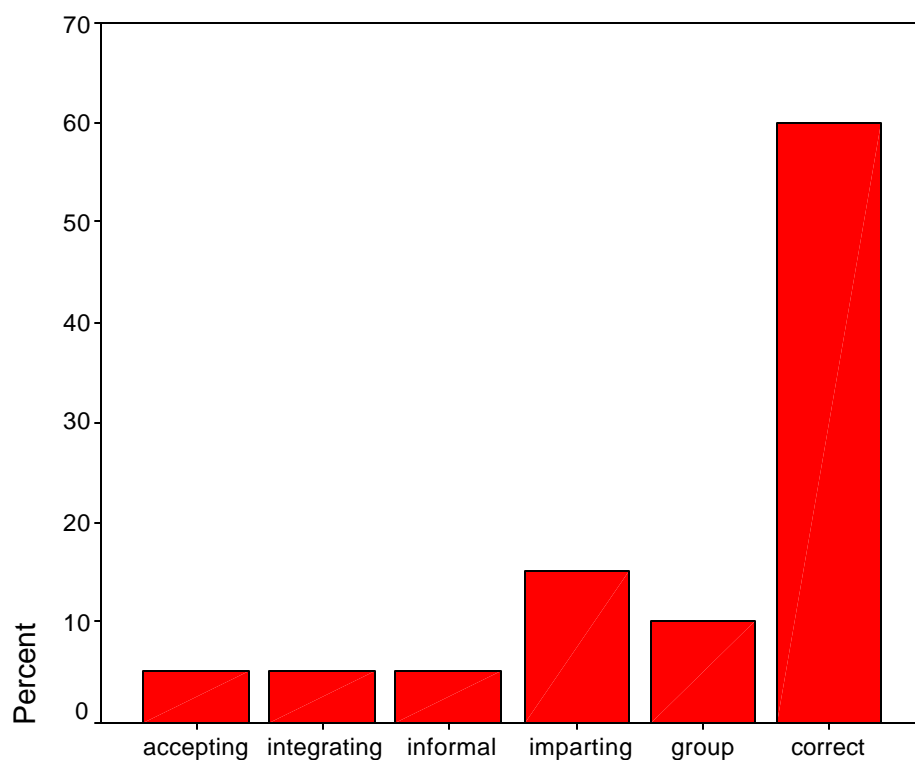


Figure 3.12 Progress of a Standard 5 lesson: 'My Family'

A Standard 6 lesson on sentence patterns: Figure 3.13 shows the result of the internee's inviting sentences from the pupils, which were all correct (32%). Much talk was devoted to instructing (20%), directing questions to the whole group (18%), accepting pupils' input (18%), and one-way communication (9%).

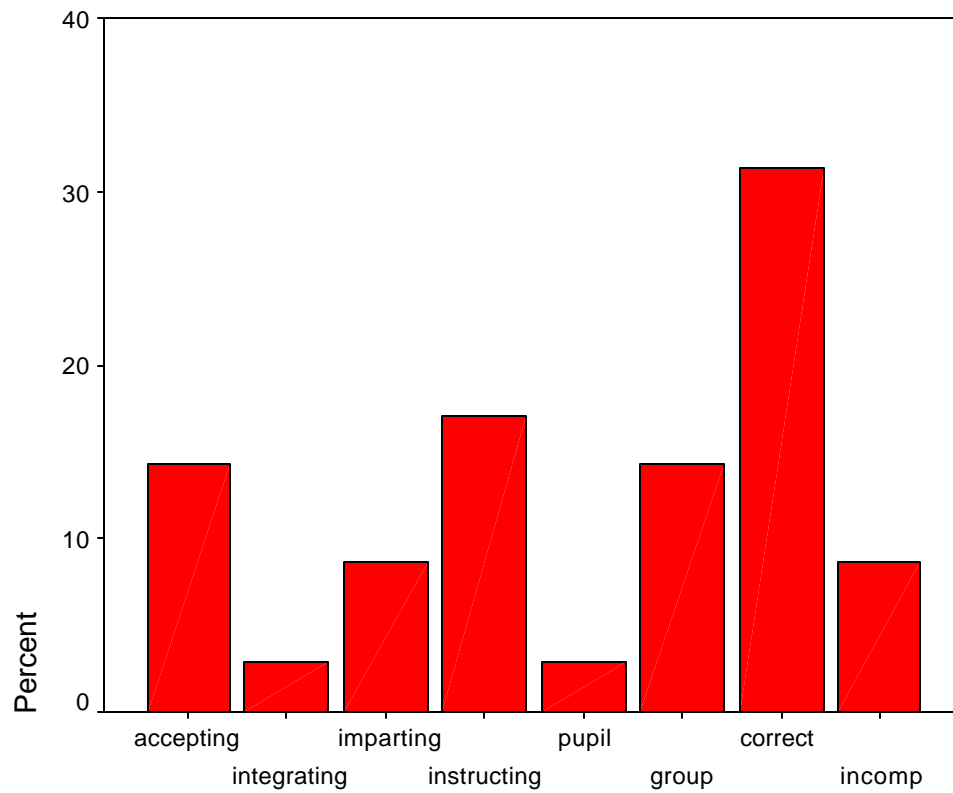


Figure 3.13 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: Sentence Patterns

Another Standard 6 lesson on sentence patterns: In figure 3.14 the internee also invited sentences, which were correct (42%) before using the time to issue instructions (30%), engage in one-way communication (8%), directing questions to individual pupils (8%), to the group (8%), and accepting pupils' input (8%).

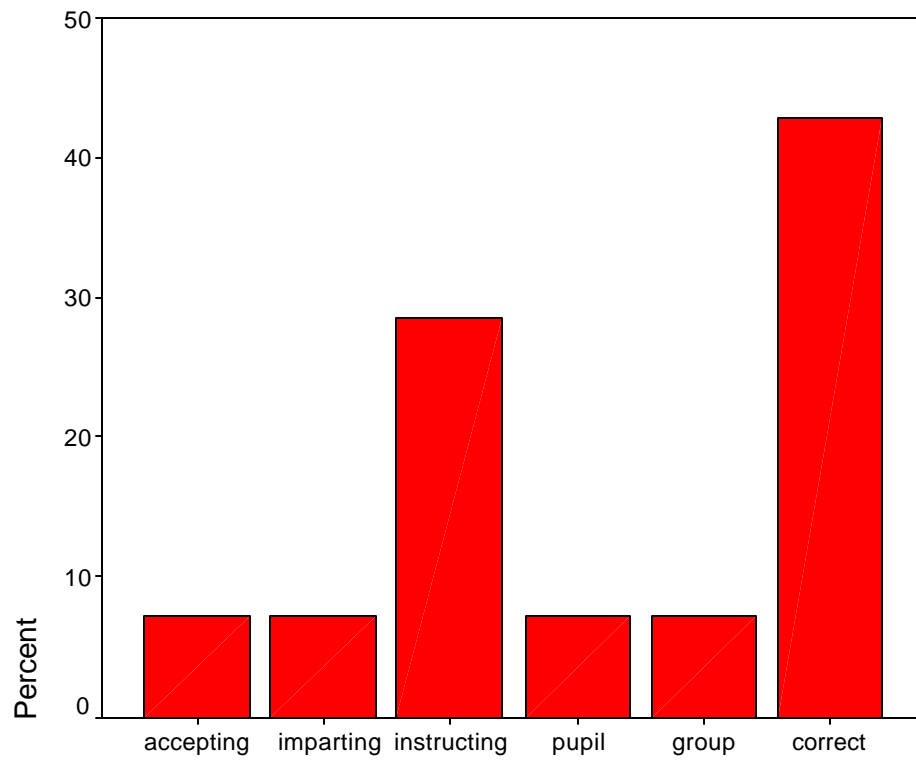


Figure 3.14 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: Sentence Patterns

A Standard 6 lesson on the present and past simple tenses: Figure 3.15 represents a lesson in which one-way communication dominates 28% of the verbal interaction time. For about 18% of the time the internee directed questions to the entire group, which were correctly answered (20%), causing the internee to verbally accept them (10%) with praise.

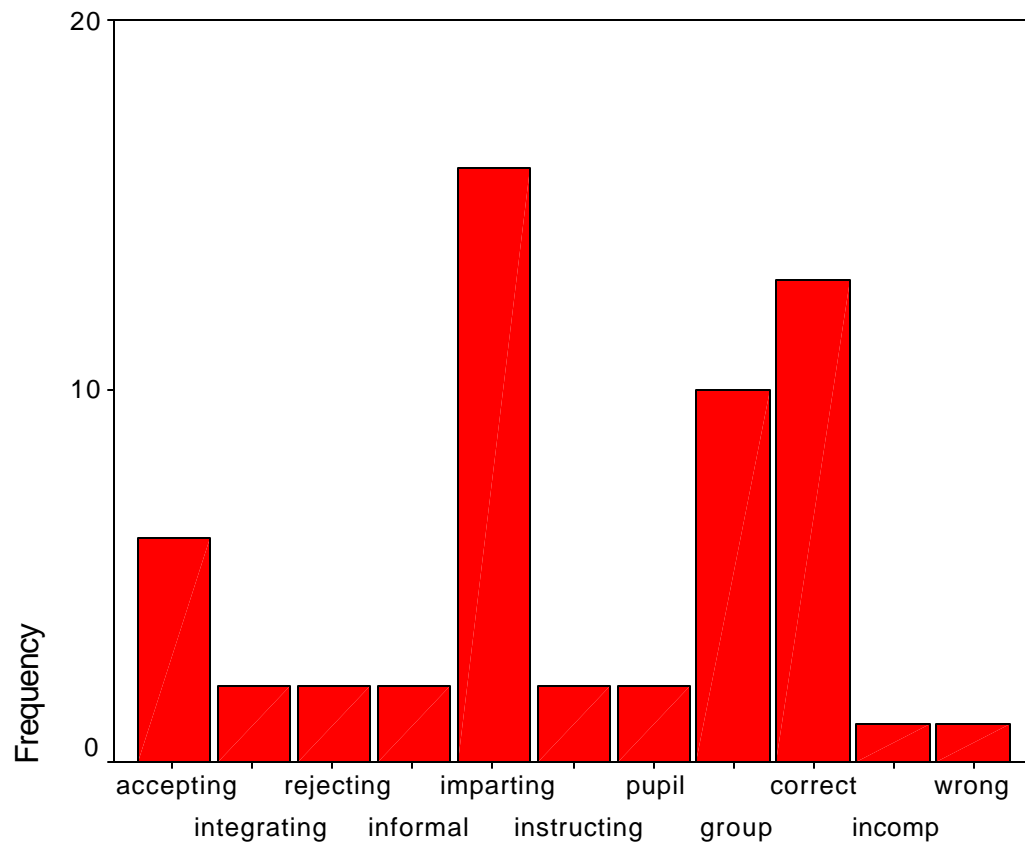


Figure 3.15 Progress of a Standard 6 lesson: the present and past simple tenses

#### *Discussion of results from verbal interaction*

In the lessons observed, there was only one incident when a pupil spoke spontaneously. The internee had asked 'what does knee mean?' and without putting up his hand, a pupil loudly asked 'In Setswana?'. The internee's abrupt 'no' indicated clearly that not only is

L1 disallowed in her English class, but also that no one speaks without raising their hand and then standing up to answer when called.

Internees showed a strong willingness to praise pupils whenever they responded correctly to a question. This was helpful in raising the self-confidence of the pupils and in encouraging them to speak. Internees also evaluated the manner, form, content, and language of each response. For example, one-word responses were often discouraged even in the case of yes/no questions in preference to full sentences. The short form responses using the auxiliary verbs (such as *No I can't* or *Yes we did*, etc.) were not heard. However, instead of *'no I can't'* or *'yes we did'*, the short form responses such as *'no teacher'* or *'yes teacher'* respectively, were acceptable to the internee. 'No' or 'yes' by itself was unacceptable.

Contrary to what might be regarded as simple, ESL learners often have difficulty answering yes/no questions in full sentences because of the complex restructuring involved. For example, to require a full sentence to the question 'Did you see him yesterday?' would create the following difficulties:

- if the answer is in the negative, the pupil requires knowledge of how to correctly use 'do' together with the negator 'not' in order to avoid the likely error: \**No I not see him yesterday*'.
- if the answer is in the affirmative, the pupil requires knowledge of the function of 'did' in the question so as to avoid this likely error in tense: \**Yes I see him yesterday*'.

Fortunately, in the lessons observed very few yes/no questions were heard, except 'Is s/he correct?' However, the point to be made is that requiring pupils to answer questions in full sentences, can cause them inhibitions due to fear of making errors.

In many cases the internees' question, *Is s/he correct?* or *Who can help him/her?* signalled that the response was faulty either in manner, form, content, or in language. Such rallying of contradiction from the other pupils often resulted in feelings of embarrassment and rejection for the particular pupil, although for the brave ones, it allowed them chance to rephrase their answers. Some of the internees wisely allowed the pupil more time by using expressions like *Can you say that again?* or, more frequently, *Come again!* However, it should be stressed that insistence on correctness had a general debilitating effect on the pupils' enthusiasm to speak.

### 3.3.3.2 Competence to provide a stimulating lesson opening

The beginnings of lessons were analyzed to determine whether they were capable of stimulating pupils' interest. Table 3.1 shows the findings:

**Table 3.1 Lesson openings**

Lesson	Lesson Opening	Technique
A	Internee: <i>'In our English lesson yesterday, what was our topic for yesterday?'</i>	Question
B	Internee: <i>'So, we are going to talk about a football match. Have you ever been to a football match?'</i>	Question
C	Internee: <i>'we are going to make a game'</i>	Game
D	Internee: <i>'So I want those people to...'</i> Class: <i>'...tell us now'</i>	Command
E	Class moves to the front to perform a game of about 10 minutes.	Game
F	Internee: <i>'put away those books please. OK.'</i>	Command
G	Internee: <i>'OK Ludo, from the beginning you read.'</i>	Command
H	Internee: <i>'what were we learning about last time?'</i>	Question
I	Internee: <i>'in the main road ...in the road, what happened? What went wrong? Something happened ... what was it?'</i>	Question
J	Internee: <i>'take out your English exercise books. Write the date and title. And then listen very carefully.'</i>	Command
K	Internee: <i>'you listen carefully to the story so you can ask her a question after the story.'</i>	Command
L	Internee: <i>'Every one is going to get a chance to speak. No one is going to laugh at the other.'</i>	Directions
M	Internee: <i>'give me a sentence. Any sentence.'</i>	Command
N	Internee: <i>'Tomba give a sentence.'</i> Tomba says <i>'I play tennis.'</i>	Command
O	Internee: <i>'what did we do when we used the present simple tense? Or, when did we use the present simple tense?'</i>	Question

A question opened many of the lessons. A variation to this pattern occurred by way of commands in some lessons, and the use of language games in two others. In one of the language games, the class seemed to have rehearsed the game for a long time, and unfortunately, they had 'learnt' to spoil it too: the whispered message was not passed to



people who were not friends prompting angry reactions and loss of the objective of the game! It should be noted, however, that the other lesson openings were unavoidably dictated by circumstances: after teaching one subject, the internee's question conveniently signalled the beginning of a different subject. In order to provide a smooth and effective transition from one lesson to the next, questions about the previous day's work were helpful to the pupils.

### *3.3.3.3 Mitchell and Parkinson Instrument (MPI)*

The MPI was used to obtain a representative cross-section of the sort of English lessons taught by internees. Five different dimensions of the main segment of the each lesson were coded according to the MPI. These are: Topic, Language activity, the role played by the teacher (t-mode), the role played by the pupils (p-mode), and the general organization of the class (Malamah-Thomas, 1987:60). The instrument has the potential of providing comparable observation data of different lessons at a glance.

After observing the different lessons, and coding each of them according to the MPI, a comparison could be made about the features of each of the fifteen lessons as shown in Table 3.2:

**Table 3.2: A comparison of the fifteen lessons based on the MPI**

Topic	Language activity	t-mode	p-mode	Class organization
Lesson A: (Std. 6) Reading	Discussion	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening  - Writing	Whole class
Lesson B: (Std. 6) A football match	Question & Answer	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening  - Reading	Whole class
Lesson C: (Std. 4) Domestic accidents	Language game & Drill	Instructing, Questioning	+ Speaking + Listening	Whole class
Lesson D: (Std. 4) A prepared speech	Explaining a procedure	Commanding Listening	+ Speaking + Listening	Whole class
Lesson E: (Std. 6) The past simple	Language game & Story telling	Instructing, Questioning	+ Speaking + Listening	Whole class
Lesson F: (Std. 4) Reading	Vocabulary	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening	Whole class
Lesson G: (Std. 4) Reading	Word recognition	Commanding Questioning	+ Listening	Whole class
Lesson H: (Std. 6) Present continuous	Drill	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening + Writing	Whole class
Lesson I: (Std. 4) Road safety	Vocabulary	Instructing,  Questioning	+ Listening + Writing Speaking	Whole class
Lesson J: (Std. 6) Reading	Listening comprehension	Reading	Note-making + Listening	Whole class
Lesson K: (Std. 4) Story-telling	Narration	Commanding Listening	+ Listening	Pupil demonstration
Lesson L: (Std. 5) The family	Presentation	Commanding Listening	+ Listening	Pupil demonstration
Lesson M: (Std. 6) Sentence patterns	Drill	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening + Writing	Whole class
Lesson N: (Std. 6) Sentence patterns	Drill	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening	Whole class
Lesson O: (Std. 6) Present/Past simple	Drill	Instructing, Questioning	+ Listening -Writing	Whole class

The fifteen lessons provide a good spread with regard to topic, level, content, and language activity of the lessons. They are therefore fairly representative of the lessons taught in ESL settings. A clearly discernible pattern in the data is the similarities in classroom

organization, teacher roles (t-mode), and pupil roles (p-mode) captured by the same descriptors, which appear consistently irrespective of topic, level taught, the lesson content, and language activity of the lesson. The plus and minus signs are used to indicate the degree of prevalence/or the absence of the descriptive characteristic.

#### *3.3.3.4 Quantity and quality of questioning*

The quantity and quality of questioning that teachers engage in is thought to influence the quality of classroom learning (Orlich *et al.* cited in Richards & Nunan, 1990:6). Because question-and-answer dominated the lessons observed, this section of the study sought to verify the questioning skills of each of the internees. Regarding the *quantity of questions* a count of how many questions heard during the duration of the lesson was taken. Since some of the questions came from the internee and others from the pupils, the two sources of questions were separately recorded as Table 3.3 shows:

**Table 3.3      Number of questions asked by the internee and the pupils**

Duration	Number of internee's questions	Number of pupils' questions
A (1hr)	8	5
B(1hr)	35	0
C (30 min)	34	0
D (30 min)	4	0
E (1hr)	15	0
F (1hr)	15	5
G (1hr)	11	5
H (1hr)	10	0
I (1hr)	14	0
J (1hr)	27	0
K (1hr)	6	8*
L (1hr)	1	0
M (1hr)	18	0
N (1hr)	2	0
O (1hr)	11	0

The findings above are consistent with earlier findings (Millrood 1999, Hilsdon 1993, Nyati-Ramahobo & Orr 1993, and Prophet & Rowell 1988) that in ESL classrooms, pupils rarely ask or speak at all without the teacher's prompting. In the four instances in table 3.3 where pupils' questions were heard, the internees had turned the situation around by telling the pupils to 'ask each other questions'. In lesson K the internee's insistence on pupils to ask something resulted in inaudible questions followed by inaudible answers. Sadly however, in the other three cases the questions asked were the kind the answers of which everyone knew, indicating that the questioner had no genuine desire to know something. For example following a reading of a story by different readers, the internee announced '*Close your books. Ask others a question to see if they were listening*' (see Lesson F, Appendix D). With the objective being to catch the poor listener, and in order to avoid public embarrassment, the questioner could not ask a question the answer of which s/he did

not know. Asking questions in a genuine attempt to know what one previously did not know, which is authentic purposeful communication, was foiled in this way.

To assess *the quality of questions* the entire text of the transcribed lessons was scanned for the nature of questions heard. As Sadker & Sadker (1988:82) argued, certain classroom instructions may be regarded as constituting a question, even though they are not phrased in question form because they are capable of eliciting responses from pupils. Thus for that reason, the following instructions heard in the lessons observed were also categorised as questions: *copy the table on the board and complete it; identify what is happening in the picture, and write five sentences in the present tense*. The findings are shown in Table 3.4:

**Table 3.4 Quality of questions heard**

<p>Lesson A</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What was our topic yesterday?</li> <li>• What are the names of those children?</li> <li>• Who of those children speaks Hausa and English?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Who lives in Lusaka?</li> <li>• Who speaks Swahili and English</li> <li>• What is the capital of Ethiopia?</li> <li>• What language is spoken in Egypt?</li> <li>• Complete the form with the information above.</li> </ul>
<p>Lesson B</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Have you ever been to a football match?</li> <li>• When was it?</li> <li>• Which teams were playing?</li> <li>• Do you only watch school teams?</li> <li>• What was the final score?</li> <li>• Look at these pictures: what is in the picture?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Which teams do you think are playing?</li> <li>• What can you see in the first picture?</li> <li>• How many teams are there?</li> <li>• Write about a football match you have ever watched.</li> </ul>
<p>Lesson C</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is inside the plastic bag?</li> <li>• Watch what she is doing: what has happened to her?</li> <li>• What did she cut her finger with?</li> <li>• What did I say yesterday a phrase is?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• After cutting her finger where did she go?</li> <li>• What did the nurse do?</li> <li>• What did she use to wash the wound?</li> <li>• What is she doing now?</li> <li>• What do they go to school by?</li> </ul>
<p>Lesson F</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What does 'knees' mean?</li> <li>• Look at page 101 and listen to the</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Where did Sophie come from?</li> <li>• Who wears a brown dress</li> <li>• How old is Sophie?</li> </ul>

readers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Was the dress long or short?</li> </ul>
Lesson G <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Write down the question that you are going to ask.</li> <li>What was the story about?</li> <li>Did the crocodile eat hare?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Did hare know how to swim?</li> <li>Who grabbed hare's foot?</li> <li>What was hare dreaming about when the river flooded?</li> </ul>
Lesson H <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What were we learning about last time?</li> <li>What does the present tense describe?</li> <li>Who can give me examples in the past simple tense?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Why do we put 's' on 'drive'?</li> <li>In which words don't we add 's'?</li> <li>Jump: what are you doing?</li> <li>What tense are we using?</li> <li>What does this tense describe?</li> <li>Make sentences in the present continuous tense.</li> </ul>
Lesson I <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What went wrong in the main road?</li> <li>What happened to the driver?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What did he do then?</li> <li>What do we mean by 'mistake'?</li> <li>Write 5 sentences on road safety beginning 'Don't'.</li> </ul>
Lesson J <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Was Mary alone or with a friend?</li> <li>Was it daytime or night-time?</li> <li>What 2 things did they hear?</li> <li>What did Mary call out?</li> <li>Who replied?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What flew over their heads?</li> <li>Were Mary and Gloria afraid?</li> <li>What did they see when the moon came out?</li> <li>Did they feel frightened when they could see?</li> </ul>
Lesson L <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Give me a name of any institution you know.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Give me one word we use to describe people in a home.</li> </ul>
Lesson M <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>I am <u>going</u> to <u>town</u>. What is 'I'?</li> <li>Is it a noun?</li> <li>A word that can stand for a noun, what is it called?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What about 'going'?</li> <li>What about 'town'?</li> <li>Write 8 'simple sentences'.</li> </ul>
Lesson N <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>I <u>play tennis</u>. What is the subject? The verb? The object?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Make 10 sentences in the same way underline S V O.</li> </ul>
Lesson O <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What did we do when we used the present simple tense?</li> <li>Give examples of actions that happen all the time.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Give me examples of events that happened at a definite time in the past.</li> <li>Put these words into sentences.</li> </ul>

Table 3.4 shows that questions seeking factual recall, known as *low order questions*, dominated interaction in the lessons transcribed. Such questions are often close-ended and result in the response being either right or wrong (hence the frequent internee's question 'Is

*s/he correct?*). Evidence from the questions shown in Table 3.4 confirms the following disadvantages, also raised by Hilsdon (1993:15), of overusing low order (recall) questions:

- Ability to answer recall questions is not a particularly useful real-world linguistic survival skill. Pupils need the means to question, think, and learn for themselves if they are to succeed in Botswana's English medium education system, and to survive within the world of work that uses English.
- They do not produce confident pupils who trust the worth of their personal ideas and opinions.
- They make pupils appear uninterested in what is going on in the class.
- They do not make contact with the pupils' world outside the classroom, so they are not authentic. The result is 'restricted vocabulary, over-precise enunciation, too much information, distinct turn-taking, and complete well-formed sentences' (Hilsdon, 1993:16).
- They do not allow what is unknown to the teacher to be heard resulting in very restricted language use.

Questions that generate talking by seeking problem solving and interpretation, known as *high order questions or multiple response questions* (Sadker & Sadker, 1988:82), were absent in the lessons transcribed. For a lesson that is described as communicative to be truly so, high order questions that are open-ended and seeking answers the teacher may not know are recommended (Redfield & Rousseau cited in Richards & Nunan, 1990:6). By asking '*what can you see in the picture to show that this is a football game?*' a more effective elicitation of language and insightful discoveries by the pupil is enabled. It also

allows pupils to share their knowledge of the world with their peers and the internee. The questions needed to be varied so as to provide evidence of pupils' thought processes working. However, the lessons showed a complete absence of open-ended questions. Hilsdon (1993:8) offers helpful hints on how to combine closed and open-ended questions for effective language teaching. Figure 3.16 borrows some of the author's ideas that could have been applied in Lesson B (Appendix D):

Figure 3.16 Examples of close-ended and open-ended questions

<b>Close-ended questions</b>	<b>Open-ended questions</b>
1. What is in the picture?	1. What tells us that this is a football match?
2. Which teams are playing?	2. What things can you see in the picture to show that these teams are not in Botswana?
3. How many teams are there?	3. Why are the players wearing different jerseys?

The value of open-ended questions in language teaching is their ability to stimulate learner input. According to Richards (1990:6) open-ended multiple-response questions encourage pupil participation in learning. Second language acquisition theory sometimes refers to this stimulation as 'negotiating input'. In responding to the question '*what tells us that this is a football match*', for example, pupils encounter vocabulary associated with soccer for the benefit of everyone by 'negotiating' with input generated by peers. It is this vocabulary that all the pupils, including a large number who have never been to a football game, needed in the task '*write about a football match you have ever watched*'. For a little boy or girl in Standard 6 such words as *soccer boots, goal posts, the net, players (defenders, forwards, half/full backs, goalkeeper), jerseys, referee, linesmen, whistle, first/second half, tackle*, and so on, are unlikely to be familiar words. Similarly, describing the actual football activity in a second language is a very difficult task unless some 'negotiated' help is given with expressions such as:



*Blowing the whistle*

*The final whistle went*

*Offside position, injury, injury time*

*Tackle, dribble, save, defend, blast, shoot/shot, win/beat, fowl, penalty, etc.*

With pupils extracting information for themselves when the internee asks the right kind of question, the learning activity becomes much more participatory and their level of familiarity with the topic can be ascertained. More importantly, the internee's domination of talk in the classroom is greatly reduced.

#### *3.3.3.5 What internees regarded as errors*

What internees regarded as errors was also verified by examining the moments when the pupils' speech was interrupted by the internee's correction. Only those lessons where there were incidences of error are reported in Table 3.5. There is an apparent low incidence of language errors in pupils' speech. However, this is deceptive. The low incidence of error was the result of the very limited opportunities available to pupils to initiate utterances. While opportunities to speak seemed to arise whenever the internee asked a question to the class, what the pupil actually said often resulted from manipulating the words in the internees' question.

**Table 3.5 Pupils' language errors**

Lesson	Errors identified	Self-corrected	Peer-corrected	Internee-corrected
Lesson A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Who live in Lusaka?</li> <li>*What language is spoken at Egypt?</li> </ul>			<b>x</b> <b>x</b>
Lesson B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*I was going to watch the football at the stadium at the 19<sup>th</sup> of May</li> </ul>			<b>x</b>
Lesson C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>'...with a knife' (internee disallows phrases)</li> <li>Mispronounced 'phrase' as 'phase'</li> <li>*A phrase is a sentence without a verb</li> <li>*They go to school by foot</li> </ul>	- -	- -	<b>x</b> <b>x</b> - -
Lesson D	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*How to make a buns.</li> </ul>	-	-	-
Lesson E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*I spent the weekend on Gaborone.</li> </ul>			<b>x</b>
Lesson F	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mispronounced 'pretty' as "Pretta".</li> <li>Mispronounced 'vanish' as "Fanish"</li> <li>*Who wear a brown dress?</li> <li>*Sophie wear a brown dress.</li> <li>*Was dress short or long?</li> </ul>	- - -	<b>x</b> <b>x</b> - - -	- - <b>x</b> - -
Lesson G	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*The crocodile eat the hare.</li> <li>*Did hare knows how to swim?</li> <li>Misreads 'crocodile' as: 'commandment'</li> </ul>	<b>x</b>	<b>x</b>	<b>x</b>
Lesson H	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*My father drive me to school</li> </ul>			<b>x</b>
Lesson O	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*We use the present simple to join sentences</li> </ul>			<b>x</b>

**x**= corrected as indicated; - = not corrected.

### 3.3.3.6 *Internees' command of subject matter*

A lesson on sentence patterns to a Standard 6 class can be very difficult to teach, and it was these particular lessons that exposed the weakness of the two internees involved. These two lessons (see Appendix D, lessons M & N) were devoted to teaching English sentence patterns. In both of these lessons the blundering internees tried to show to the pupils that only one basic sentence (of the pattern Subject + Verb + Object) exists in the English language! Consequently, the following inaccuracies were heard:

- *\*A simple sentence in English is made up of the noun, the verb, and the object.*
- *\*A sentence is made up of a group of words. The words are arranged so we can show the subject, the verb, and the object.*
- *\*In the sentence 'I am going to town', the subject is 'I', the verb is 'going', and the object is 'to town'.*
- *\*In the sentence 'The ball is strong' there is a noun, a verb, and an object.*

Having started off from an erroneous paradigm the lessons proved quite difficult for both the internees and their pupils, and quite a good number of sentences could not be explained analytically. The following examples, which the pupils gave, could not fit into the S+V+O pattern:

- *He is a boy.*
- *Yesterday I went home with my mother.*
- *My father will call you soon.*
- *The ball is strong.*

Elsewhere there was one incidence of a technical error: *\*A phrase is a sentence without a verb*'.

The other difficulty for the two internees was having to listen to a sentence and quickly identifying the pattern of structure used. As a solution one of the internees decided to write each sentence the pupils gave, irrespective of their pattern, on the board. The internee soon began to get exhausted and frustrated by the whole task, and by the accompanying noise from the pupils whenever the internee turned around to write. And by the time a very good sentence was given (it was: *'My brother likes oranges'*) the board was full of irrelevant sentences and the internee had already stopped writing. The internee then resorted to the lecture method that used only a handful of examples that fitted the S+V+O pattern. In the other lesson, the internee had to own up and ask for help from the observer for clarification. She however did not correct the confusion she had caused the pupils.

However, apart from such lessons dealing with specific technicalities of the English language, the difficulty that arose during the actual analysis was that the other lessons were lacking any specific linguistic content with which to determine the internee's command of subject matter. For example it was difficult to determine the internee's command of subject matter in a reading lesson where one pupil read followed by another and then another for one hour. The internee's knowledge of the plot of the story, the use of language, or any other literary aspect of the reading, could not be determined because the teaching technique did not help expose it.

Likewise some of the mistakes in the internee's speech could not be construed to imply lack of command of the rules of specific English language content. It is best to regard them as 'slips of the tongue'. Because internees dominated the talking in the class, the following slips caught the observer's attention:

- \**'I have a form here of which we have to complete looking at the information'*.
- \**'Are the players putting on the same uniform?'* (Instead of 'Are the players wearing the same uniform?'). The English language has many words whose meaning is the same but usage is not: *wearing/putting on, rob/steal, sit/seat, win/beat, lend/borrow*, etc. Many of us ESL learners have difficulty with such words.
- What is a "suitcase"? This is the question the internee had asked the pupils. No one could answer it so the internee said: \**'it is a big handbag which you can put your clothes on when you are going somewhere'*.
- \**'When you look at this table you can see they have used a wood and they have put a vanish'*.
- \**'Was dress short or long?'*
- \**'The present tense describes things that are always true/things that we usually do'*.
- \**'Was the boy hitten by a car?'* Also, throughout the lesson, the pronunciation of 'safety code' was given as 'servity code' and pupils were asked to repeat this.
- Words with multiple meanings often result in one being wrong because the context does not allow. For instance, a pupil contributed to the meaning of 'vanish' thus: *'I think vanish means people who make up their faces'*. The internee ignored him but

praised the one who said something about furniture. Not pointing out this multiple meaning of ‘vanish’ can be attributed to the internee’s ignorance.

Having to listen out for errors from pupils also strained the internees. This strain was noticeable in the following example where the internee tried to correct a non-existent error and subsequently said very little, if not nonsense:

- Pupil: *no, hare didn’t know how to swim.*  
 Internee: *you can’t say didn’t and then know. Who can help her? What should she say?*  
 Volunteer: *do not.*  
 Internee: *the question was did hare know how to swim? So what should be the answer? Yes Tumelo.*  
 Tumelo: *no, the hare did not know how to swim.*  
 Internee: *Very good! No, the hare did not know how to swim (x2).*

In one grammar lesson on tenses, the term ‘*present tense*’ was used interchangeably with ‘*present continuous tense*’ and ‘*present simple tense*’. For example after writing the term ‘*Present Continuous Tense*’ on the blackboard, the internee asked the class ‘*What does the present tense describe?*’ Two answers given and accepted by the internee were ‘*the present tense describes things that are always true*’, and, ‘*the present tense describes things that we usually do*’. When ‘the present continuous tense’ and ‘the present simple’ are taught as ‘the present tense’ and so are one and the same thing, confusion is unavoidable. There was further confusion regarding the s-inflection on verbs for the third person singular. Using the sentence ‘*My father usually drives me to school*’, the internee asked the pupils why we say ‘drives’. The answer given and repeated by the internee was ‘*because it is one person and the sentence begins with he/she/it*’.

One particular lesson (Appendix D Lesson O) demonstrated the folly of the lecture method. For a topic with an immediate relevance to pupils' experiences as 'things that happen repeatedly' or 'things that have passed', the lecture method is surely inappropriate. Surprised at the silent faces in front of her, the internee remarked '*you look as if you are afraid ... is it you don't want to participate? Why?*'. While the internee was confident, choice of method foiled her efforts to achieve an effective lesson.

However, all these are very few mistakes to warrant condemning the subjects of this study as lacking command of English.

#### *3.3.3.7 Verification of teaching attributes of internees*

Besides recording lessons on audiocassettes during *lesson observation* as reported in paragraph 3.3.3, brief notes were made in some lessons in order to capture classroom phenomena, which was observable, but not recordable on audiocassettes. This information, such as the teacher's body language, was used to comment on phenomena pertaining to the teachers' second language teaching attributes. The notes were analysed for evidence of classroom attributes internees displayed.

### **Results and discussion of findings from lesson observation notes**

Because the subjects of this study are all ITE graduates currently enrolled into INSET, certain teaching attributes were common to all. Not only did they understand the pupils' linguistic background, but they could also speak, read and write both the pupils' TL and the pupils' L1. In addition to that, the internees possessed the classroom skills derived from ITE with which to teach the two languages. Other attributes discerned were the following:

- **Ability to be authority figures in the class and to find the most effective technique to teach an item**

The topic of each lesson was selected by the internee in consultation with the scheme of work made by the regular class-teacher. The internee then developed a technique to teach the lesson. Because the internee knew beforehand that the lesson was to be assessed, it was assumed the lesson was the best the internee could develop. Table 3.6 shows ten of the lessons observed by the researcher and the technique each internee used to teach the language items.

**Table 3.6      Some of the teaching techniques observed**

<b>Level</b>	<b>Lesson topic</b>	<b>Teaching technique and duration</b>
Standard 6	Sentence patterns	Question and answer (1hour)
Standard 6	A football match	Picture study, reading and cloze passage
Standard 4	Punctuation marks	Question and answer (1 hour)
Standard 4	A domestic accident	Dramatisation (30 minutes)
Standard 6	Past tense	Question and answer (1 hour)
Standard 1	Action verbs (outdoor class)	Total physical response (30 minutes)
Standard 5	The present simple	Question and answer (1 hour)
Standard 4	Story telling	Child presenters (30 minutes)
Standard 6	Present continuous tense	Question and answer (1 hour)
Standard 4	Road safety	Question and answer (1 hour)

Table 3.6 shows the techniques developed for Standards 4 and 1 were the most ingenuous. These two lessons provided a portrait of internees who were capable of bringing fun and excitement into the task of language learning and teaching. In Standard 1 for example, pupils enjoyed this outdoor lesson (so it could not be recorded on cassette by the researcher) as they ‘performed’ the particular verbs that the teacher had carefully selected: jump, walk, laugh, write, sit, stand, etc. In the dramatization in Standard 4, the small cast



of nurse, patient and the guardian was as involved as the rest of the class who formed a very lively audience.

- **Ability to anticipate pupils' difficulties**

There were frequent interjections by the internee whenever pupils were required to speak. Pupils expected this and spoke hesitantly waiting for the internee's remark. They also waited for the internee's elaboration of questions in order to avoid making a mistake. Below is a case in point of the activity in a Standard 6 classroom (see Lesson B Appendix D for a detailed transcription).

Teacher: *Have you ever been to a football match?*

All pupils: *Yees teacher.*

Teacher: *When was it? When... when did (pause) when did you go to the match?*

One pupil: *I was going to (pause) watch the match (pause) the football match at the stadium at the 19 of May.*

Teacher: *So we say: it was on the 19<sup>th</sup> of May. Say that.*

One pupil: *It was on the 19<sup>th</sup> of May.*

Although over-correction of errors is criticized for being too restrictive on the pupils' efforts to formulate utterances, in the above case it provided the 'scaffolding' upon which this pupil successfully said what could eventually make sense.

- **Ability to use restricted classrooms resourcefully**

In some lessons, the content enabled the internees and their classes to talk about issues beyond the confines of the classroom. Such issues as 'road safety', 'domestic accidents', 'the family', and so on, were successfully dealt with within the confines of the classroom (see Appendix D Lessons B, C, D, I, & L). This was helpful in encountering language in a variety of settings. Ingenuity on the part of the internee was demonstrated in the pictures

that were brought in as teaching aids. A classic example was in the Standard 6 lesson entitled '*a football match*'. The pictures used were of a football match in far-off Singapore instead of a local football event. Even though a local example would have worked better, global experiences are not quite irrelevant in language classrooms. In the writing activity however, the internee disallowed pupils, and for no apparent reason, from referring to Singapore. He repeated over and over again: '*You have never been to Singapore. Use names of football teams in Botswana*'. Perhaps greater freedom to use their imaginative faculties would have yielded greater variety in language use.

The teaching of grammar observed needed this kind of ingenuity in order to be effective and efficient. For example, a lesson on the present continuous tense (see Appendix D lesson H), held in a classroom with windows facing a busy delivery lane, did not make use of the delivery trucks which were offloading merchandise at the same time as the lesson. Instead the internee repeatedly called the attention of the class to the sentences written on the board and to stop looking through the windows.

Like the non-NESTs in seven different national contexts reported in Samway & McKeon (1993:4), the internees displayed that they are firsthand observers of what works and what does not. Not only are they are thoughtful and reflective about the process of examining the impact of instruction on pupils' learning, they are attending to the relationship between theoretical models of instruction and the performance of pupils in their classes.

- **Teaching attributes of native and non-native second language teachers**

Comparisons of NESTs and non-NESTs working in different national contexts (Medgyes, 1994; Millrood, 1999; Zhou, 1999; Amin 1997; Tang 1997) have pointed to the teaching attributes of these two sets of professionals. The popularity of the English language globally suggests that there would never be enough native NESTs to teach English to the entire world! Therefore, in different national contexts, can be found motivated learners taught by devoted teachers who were also learners of English themselves. In an edited book by Samway & McKeon (1993), the authors recorded a number of similarities in these varied contexts of ELT primary school experiences in Botswana, South Africa, China, Russia, Estonia, Brunei, and the Philippines, which were summed up as ‘common threads of practice’, arising from common characteristics peculiar to the teachers in these situations. Figure 3.17 present a contrastive view of the teaching attributes of these two categories of teachers:

Figure 3.17: A comparative view of attributes of NESTs and non-NESTs

NESTs	Non-NESTs
1. Superior in speaking fluently	1. Able to speak accurately
2. Have superior vocabulary	2. Pupil-teacher interaction best due to mother tongue advantage
3. Provide pupils the need to use English.	3. The teacher's personal previous learning experiences offer a privileged understanding of pupils' problems and weaknesses especially arising from language transfer.
4. Enjoy respect as the ideal models of successful learning.	4. Perfect role models for pupils, perceived as example of successful learning
5. They are also less likely to follow the textbook slavishly and provide a sense of accomplishment when pupils engage them in a conversation. Their teaching is less text book based so are effective with the CLT approach	5. Very effective when approach used is audiolingual: with a radio, picture, or story.
6. Interesting to the pupils because s/he is foreign, new, and different	6. They can be very innovative with a song, drama, cross-word puzzle, role-play
7. Provides a feeling of accomplishment to the pupils when they can get their ideas across to him	7. Is conscious of the structure of the language and so, can give reasoned explanations to pupils
8. Demonstrate good Standard English along with idiomatic language and slang but must accompany such assets, which often lead pupils' expectations of a miraculous result, with an awareness of the teaching culture in the countries they work in	8. Non-NESTs have been found to derive strength from their knowledge of the pupils' L1 and culture despite the linguistic difficulties they possess.

### 3.3.4 Synthesis

In the lessons observed, the internee-centred lecture approach led to over-reliance on teacher talk and the textbook. In turn, interactive language use was foiled because the internees did not respond to pupils' communicative needs. Thus English lessons were *complicated, uninspiring, unenjoyable, restrictive, and ineffective*, a situation that frustrated both internees and pupils alike (see Appendix D, especially Lessons J, M, and N). The teaching of the reading skill by the internees was observed to be choral in nature with one pupil reading followed by another, then another before a writing exercise was

given (see Appendix D Lesson G). The internee's questioning skills promoted a threatening and non-conversational atmosphere that discouraged speaking and listening in the classroom (see Appendix D Lessons H, M, and O). Other studies of English lessons in ESL settings by Abura (1998), Hilsdon (1993), Nyati-Ramahobo and Orr (1993), Arthur (1994), and Le Roux (1996) reported similar findings.

On the basis of the range of analyses made on the 15 lessons observed, the teaching competences of the subjects of this study have been found to be homogeneous according to the **observations** enumerated below.

**Observation 1: All the lessons were identical in the following respects:**

- There was a predominant use of low order questions to which every one including the internee knew the answers.
- Pupils' utterances were complete sentences repeating the words in the question.
- There was very little spontaneous use of language. To speak in class one must raise their hand, and must stand up when speaking.
- To a large extent the questions conveniently served as transition signals from one lesson to the next. They also helped the internee to test comprehension. As the lessons progressed, it became clear that the internees knew the answers to all the questions they asked.

**Observation 2: The teaching of reading is ineffective:** The internees demonstrated the folly of loud reading by one pupil followed by another. For the readers the lessons became mere word-recognition activities, and for the listeners, attention was focused on the

pronunciation errors the reader made. Such a technique killed the story element. Often, internees discussed individual words out of context and not the story as a whole or the use of language. For instance, in one lesson where the reading of ‘*Hare and Crocodile*’ was observed (see Appendix D Lesson G), the humour embedded in the trick played by hare on crocodile was ignored. In fact the trick was never identified! In addition, the humorous spite found in actual statements such as ‘*Goodbye, stupid crocodile*’ did not make the pupils laugh. Instead, what pupils found good to laugh at were the numerous miscues one of the readers came up with such as misreading ‘crocodile’ as ‘commandment’. The simile ‘*like an army general commanding an army*’ was not explained!

In some cases the internee was at a loss anticipating pupils’ difficulty. For instance, in one lesson (see Appendix D Lesson F), while pupils had no difficulty with knees, handbag, suitcase, and pretty, the internee spent a lot of time explaining these (and embarrassing one pupil who was used as an example of ‘pretty’). The words that finally turned out to be quite difficult in the reading were; postcard, looking forward to seeing you, scarf, collar, high-heeled shoes, complained, and earrings, but sadly, these were not discussed. Likewise, larger issues arising from the reading, such as ‘*the generation gap*’ and ‘*rural and urban life*’, which featured in this reading, were not raised to stimulate interest in the reading. Instead, simple questions like ‘*was the dress long or short?*’ dominated the after-reading session.

### **Observation 3: The teaching of grammar involves long and complicated explanations:**

Internees resorted to making pupils memorise grammar rules and the language practice lacked spontaneity. The situations were not authentic enough nor were pupils’ linguistic

needs considered. Reference is made once again to a lesson (Lesson H) on the present continuous tense held in a classroom with windows facing a busy delivery lane where trucks were offloading merchandise. The internee's repeated insistence on having all the attention of the class focused on the context-free sentences that she wrote on the board, benefited very few pupils. Real life situations tended to have no place in the lessons.

Many of these grammar lessons were concluded with a writing exercise, which the internee went around marking in red. A writing activity following a long explanation went something like this: *make five sentences in the present tense using the words on the board/copy the example on the board and write six other sentences like it*'. In several incidences the pupils did not hear these instructions clearly because, coming towards the end, these instructions indicated to the pupils that the end of the lesson was approaching and they could hardly wait. Since listening to one internee's voice the whole day can be quite tedious for pupils, and quite strenuous for the internee, the writing activity provided a welcome change for both the pupils and the internee. However, if the objective of written activities remains merely to relieve the parties involved, the benefits of writing to communicate purposefully are lost.

**Observation 4: More listening followed by writing are the skills required of the pupils than the other skills:** As internees described lesson items, pupils relied solely on their listening skills for their language acquisition. Language teaching was viewed as the possession, structuring, and transmission of knowledge about English which the internees told the pupils about, thus typifying Paolo Freire's banking concept. Interactive

instructional processes advocated by the CLT approach, which the internees purported to abide by, were largely absent.

**Observation 5: The pattern of classroom communication is culturally appropriate and pupils expect it:** It must always be the teacher, not the pupils, who sets out deliberately and systematically to contribute to the pupils' education. Being older, pupils expect the teacher to know more, and culture dictates that the young (i.e. pupils) must listen when an elder person (i.e. the teacher) has the floor and should not interrupt him/her with questions. Hilsdon (1993:13) observed that:

*in the classroom, not only are children in a less important social position than the teacher, they are also younger and less knowledgeable. It therefore takes a certain amount of courage to answer a question – and even more so to ask one which may be judged and possibly rejected, especially in front of peers... It is the way in which children interact with their educators (be it in the mother tongue or the second language) that can influence linguistic success or failure.*

The five observations above strongly contradict four of the assumptions raised in 3.2.1. These contradictions are shown in figure 3.18:



Figure 3.18 Contradictions between the assumed and the observed

ASSUMPTION	OBSERVED
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• INSET improves the language teaching competences of previously ineffective teachers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The internees' way of teaching grammar and reading was not effective</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The long English learning and teaching experience of entrants is a necessary prerequisite for LTE programmes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two of the internees teaching sentence patterns committed gross errors in their explanations.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CLT is the teaching approach preferred by syllabus designers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The internees followed the transmission model of instruction. Pupils' skills of listening and writing were nurtured more than other skills.</li> <li>• The pattern of classroom communication is culturally appropriate and pupils expect it</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A reflective INSET model of teacher preparation is preferred to one that develops discrete knowledge, skills, and attitudes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The 15 internees displayed homogeneous skills and so, they could benefit from comprehensive skills development.</li> </ul>

### 3.4 CONCLUSION

The foregoing has shown that the internees who finally become ELT specialists are not achieving what they are expected to achieve as classroom language teachers. The five observations afore-mentioned (figure 3.18) indicate the pedagogical competences crucial for non-NESTs that we ought to include as essential components of the preparation programmes for primary school ELT specialists. Findings also showed that ways of reducing internees' talking and questioning without jeopardising language learning need to be explored. Pupils were not given opportunities to explore with language about what they see, hear, smell, feel, and think. For example, a lesson on the present continuous in which the internee asked children to copy her example on the board before using the five words she gave them, implied that the pupils were empty vessels receiving her knowledge. *'Look*

*out the window and tell me what you can see and hear*' would have been a more effective language activity than the following instruction: *'Write five sentences in the present continuous tense using the words on the board'*. More importantly, the purposes for which the internee conducts writing activities need to be thought out carefully so as to make them more communicative. It is suggested that the interactive model of pedagogy is helpful in disregarding the rigid rules of correctness, and of requiring raising hands and standing up before speaking, which reduce the spontaneity with which language is used. The interactive model will be incorporated in the model to be developed in chapter five.

The next chapter examines the English learning experiences of non-NESTs and then proceeds to verify what non-NESTs perceive to be their *difficulties* with the English language and makes some recommendations.

## CHAPTER FOUR

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### PERCEIVED DIFFICULTIES OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH- SPEAKING TEACHERS

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## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the English learning experiences of the internees. The findings are used to verify what non-NESTs perceive to be their *difficulties* with the English language. The hypothesis of this specific investigation was that the confidence of non-NESTs, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching, was low due to their perceived difficulties with the English language. First the chapter sets a theoretical framework in 4.1.1 through which to understand the perceived difficulties of adult second language learners. A verification of the English learning experiences of non-NESTs is given in 4.2 followed by what perceptions non-NESTs have of their communicative competences. So as to counter any negative perception respondents may hold about their competence in English, in 4.3 a discussion of the question whether a standard variety of English exists in ESL classrooms, where an intelligible and standard form of English is shown to exist, concludes the chapter. The information derived from the verification will contribute to determining the components to include in the INSET model that address the confidence of non-NESTs.

### 4.1.1 Theoretical framework

Before discussing the perceived difficulties of non-NESTs, an attempt will be made to develop a theoretical framework within the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in respect of adult second language learners, which is what non-NESTs are, whose L2 repertoire is derived from formal settings. Krashen's (1985:1) monitor hypothesis, a subset of his input hypothesis, is relevant to how adult learners perceive their L2 competence, and is therefore appropriate for this study. In this model of L2 performance, there are three

types of second language users: *monitor over-users*, *monitor under-users*, and *optimal monitor users*. The hypothesis states that adult second language performers have two independent means for internalizing rules of a second language, namely subconscious language *acquisition* and conscious language *learning*.

According to Kounin & Krashen (1978: 206) when performers *acquire* rules, they do not necessarily have a conscious idea of what the generalization is but develop a ‘feel’ for correctness. However, when they consciously *learn* they gain explicit knowledge of the rules of L2. During performance in a second language, what is acquired and what is learnt are used in very specific ways: *acquisition* to initiate utterances in L2; and *learning* to edit or monitor before or after the utterance so the speaker self-corrects. Evidence is that in conversational situations L2 speakers often interrupt their speech and this theory explains what is happening. Knowledge of the formal rules disrupts the fluency with which the L2 is spoken. Consciously learnt rules provide the L2 speaker with a capacity to monitor and to modify their speech. Krashen says that for this to happen, three conditions must be fulfilled: time, focus on form, and knowledge of the rules. *Time* allows speaker to use the monitor effectively. However in normal speech one does not have enough time to think about rules. The consequence of this is silence or, if forced to speak, hesitant output and inattention to what the partner in the interaction is saying. *Focus on form* forces the L2 speaker to think about correctness, and uses the monitor to consider how we say what s/he is trying to say. The L2 speaker must also *know the rule* in order to use the monitor.

Despite this monitoring, varying degrees of errors still occur in the speech of different learners due to personal variations in monitor use. Monitor over-users check all the time with the result that their speech is hesitant due to frequent self-correcting. Such a learner is a victim of strict grammar instruction so the speaker has not acquired any L2 but only learnt it; or has learnt and acquired, but cannot trust the acquired competence, so seeks security when s/he uses the monitor. Interviews of over-users cited in Kounin & Krashen (1978:206) admitted to lacking confidence and suffering discomfort in applying the learnt rules. *Monitor under-user* prefer not to use their conscious knowledge even when conditions allow, but only self-correct when they 'feel' a need to self-correct, and are unaffected by error correction. Kounin & Krashen (1978:207) speculate that such an under-user may be living in the country where the L2 is spoken or may be exposed to frequent use of the L2 in his/her own country. *Optimal monitor users* use it when appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication. Often in writing and planned speech optimal users make whatever corrections they can to raise the accuracy of their output. However in unprepared speech situations, they rely on conscious knowledge.

In a review of critiques of Krashen's monitor hypothesis, Ellis(1985:265) points to a methodological weakness that the monitor hypothesis is derived from 'the language user's accounts of trying to apply explicit rules'. In other words Krashen's monitor hypothesis has not been validated by experimental research. Further, while Krashen argued that instruction in grammar was injurious to performance, others (Sharwood-Smith 1981, Long 1983, Terrell 1991, Schmidt 1990) argued to the contrary that grammar instruction was consciousness-raising and therefore necessary for adults to learn the underlying linguistic

patterns of L2. Unfortunately, grammarians' descriptions of language contain jargon and complicated analyses, which if overemphasised, provide the adult learner with factual analytical knowledge about the language without being helpful to the ability to communicate. Because much English language teaching in ESL situations is often grammar-focused, Krashen's monitor hypothesis satisfactorily accounts for how the subjects of this study perceive their competence.

The discussion of the results of the questionnaire and interview appearing in paragraph 4.2.6 is developed in the light of this theoretical framework.

## **4.2 VERIFICATION OF INTERNEES' COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH**

The hypothesis of this specific aspect of the study was that the confidence of non-NESTs with regard to command of English, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching of English, is low. The methodology employed for this section of the investigation is discussed under six main headings:

- The design
- The characteristics of the subjects
- The questionnaire
- Results and discussion of findings from the questionnaire
- The interview
- Results and discussion of findings from the interview



### **4.2.1 The design**

Using a questionnaire (see Appendix A) and an interview schedule guide (see Appendix B.i), this specific part of the investigation was conducted in two phases:

#### **PHASE I**

Using the questionnaire an exploratory investigation was conducted with the following aims:

- To ascertain the variety respondents have been encountering, and consequently, proceeding to teach into the experiences non-NESTs have with the English language.
- To establish what the respondents considered specific areas of difficulty for them as they approach the end of their inset programme.

The timing of this investigation when subjects had just finished their third-year university examinations and were attending the Orientation Week in the last week of May 2001 that preceded their going out for a one-month internship session in the primary schools, was a crucial moment for these students to take stock, as it were, of their perceptions about their own English language competence as a result of their INSET experience. By finding out what they perceived to be their difficulties in teaching English, the researcher would establish the competence and level of confidence of these INSET teacher students.

#### **PHASE II**

During the last week of their final year of study (4<sup>th</sup> Year), the researcher interviewed fifteen (15) of those specializing in ELT to determine what they perceived to be the programme's contribution to their English language competence. Interviews strictly followed a guide (see Appendix B.i) developed by the researcher. To randomly select

interviewees, the forty names of the students specialising in English were typed, printed, and cut out on pieces of paper, which were rolled up afterwards and dropped in a box. By drawing a name from the box, an interviewee was selected. Altogether fifteen (15) gave their opinions. Each interview session lasted not more than fifteen (15) minutes.

#### **4.2.2 The subjects**

The subjects of study for this aspect of the investigation were the ninety-five (95) third-year students in the BEd (Primary) programme of the Faculty of Education at the University of Botswana. Forty (40) of these respondents are specializing in teaching English and Setswana and the rest, are specializing in Maths and Science, Art, Social Studies, Music, and Home Economics. For purposes of primary school teaching, however, all ninety-five respondents will be expected to teach school subjects they did not major in during INSET. All the subjects had taught primary school English together with all other school subjects on the timetable prior to coming to the University of Botswana; they held either a university diploma in primary education, or a primary teaching certificate; and so, they had had some English language teaching methodology and English content courses. Secondly, the subjects were bilingual in English and Setswana although some may have been trilingual in a third language. Therefore, the label ‘non-NESTs’ correctly describes the subjects of this study, and because they did not have to give their names, strict confidentiality was thus assured.

#### **4.2.3 The questionnaire**

A nine-item close-ended questionnaire as described in 1.4.2 (also see appendix A) was used. The questionnaire first sought insights into the experiences surrounding the English

language development of respondents since the commencement of their initial teacher training (items 1-5). Respondents were asked to state the following:

- *Years in training*
- *Classes ever taught*
- *Use of English besides talking to class*
- *Frequency of English use with native speakers, and*
- *Settings of English use with native speakers.*

In items 6-9 respondents were asked to assess their competence in English as follows:

- *Impact of university experience on their command of English*
- *Impact of having pupils as their regular communicative partners*
- *What respondents perceived as their difficulties with English, and*
- *Impact of perceived difficulties on classroom ELT.*

The questionnaire was found to conveniently explore (a) the experiences surrounding the English language development of respondents since the commencement of their initial teacher training, and (b) the perception of their competence in English and ELT. The findings would also give an indication of the variety of English they get to learn and consequently, to teach, and their personal difficulties with English. Ninety-five questionnaires were returned and a content analysis of the data was done.

#### **4.2.4 Analysis**

The data from the ninety-five respondents was submitted for processing by a computer software package known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) so as to facilitate the diagrammatic representation of the data.

## 4.2.5 Results and discussion of findings from the questionnaire

### (a) Respondents' English language development

#### 4.2.5.1 Years respondents have spent in training

With regard to years spent in training, figure 4.1 shows that about 51% of respondents said 5 years, about 32% said 6 years, and about 10% said 7 years. Although in ESL situations the length and degree of training positively influence the quantity, and perhaps also the quality, of English the individual is exposed to, it is doubtful, on account of assumed advanced age, whether this is helpful to the English competence of respondents who reported 14 years (2%) and 10 years (about 1%). However, evidence of improved performance in English after the second year in the B Ed (primary) programme at the University of Botswana is well documented in several external examiners' reports.

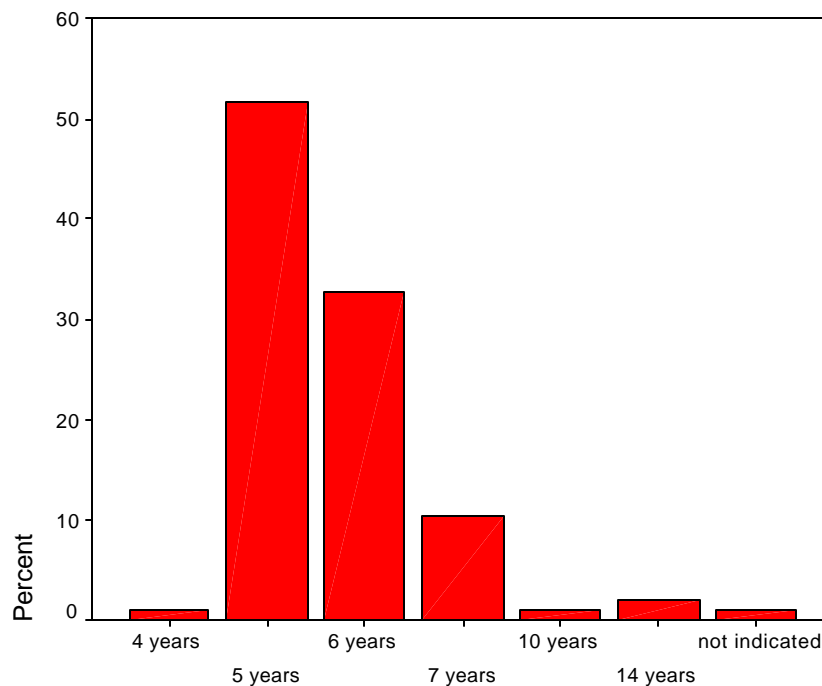


Figure 4.1 Years respondents have spent in training

#### 4.2.5.2 Classes ever taught

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of the respondents (41%) taught at all primary school levels (Standards 1 -7), while 21% taught in Upper Primary (Standards 5-7), and 20% in both upper and middle primary (Standards 3-7). Exposure to English is also affected by the nature of one's occupation. The necessity for and amount of English used in the day-to-day work life of teachers of lower primary, where all the pupils are beginner speakers of English, is much lower than in the upper forms. This factor is however insignificant for the majority of these respondents because they indicated that they had taught at each of the levels at one time in their working lives as Figure 4.2 shows.

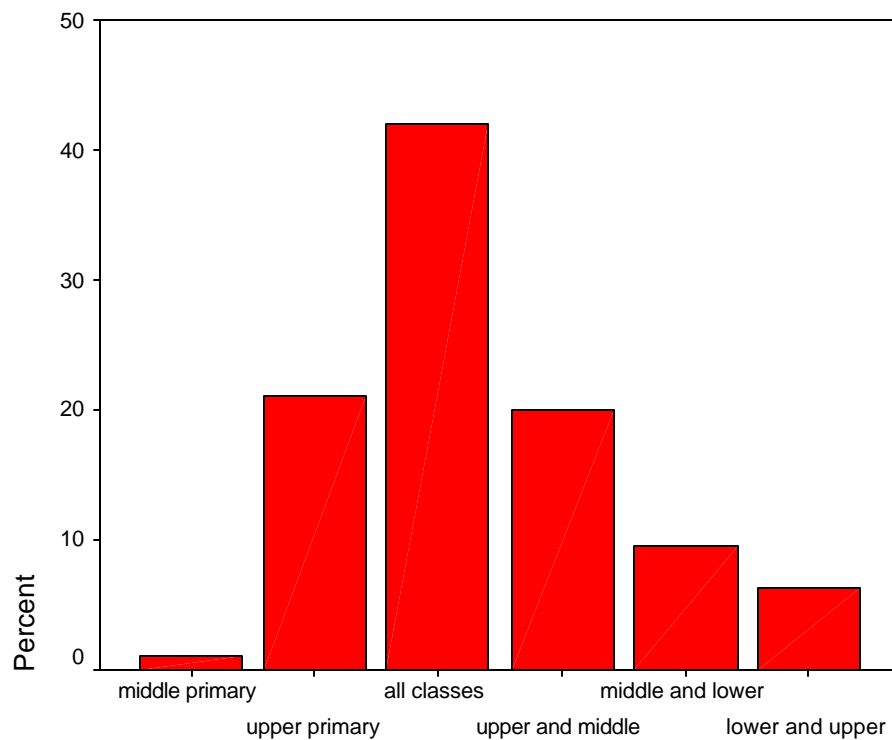


Figure 4.2 Classes respondents have ever taught

#### *4.2.5.3 Use of English besides talking to their class*

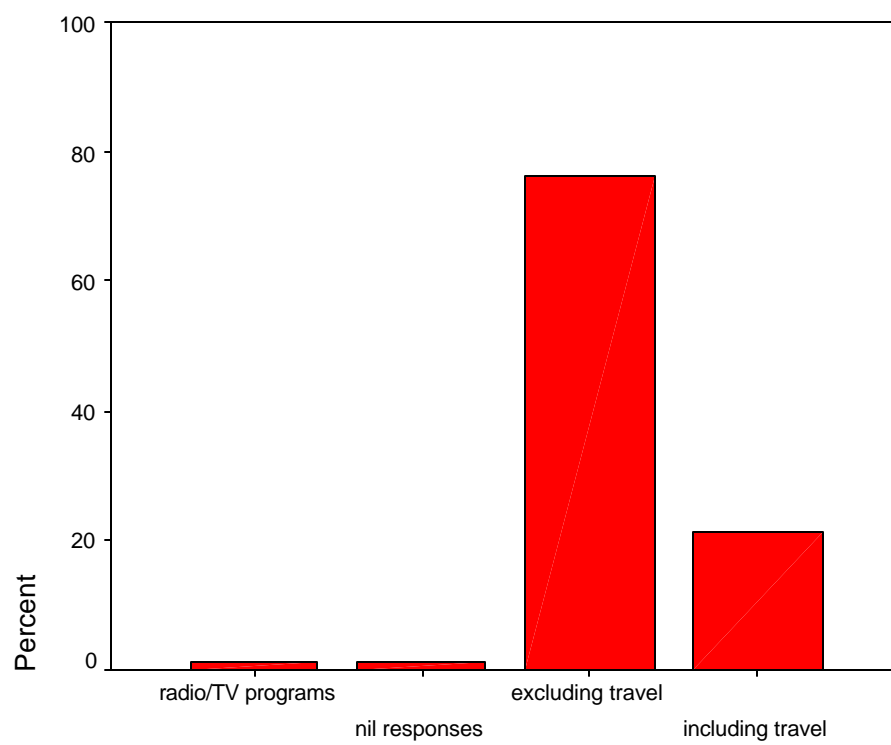
Besides using English to talk to their classes, non-NESTs also involve themselves in interactions in English from other sources depending on their motivation to do so.

Respondents were given six possible areas of exposure to English:

- Reading English books and newspapers
- Reading professional literature
- Talking with English-speaking colleagues
- Travelling to English-speaking countries
- Corresponding with friends and acquaintances, and
- Listening to radio and watching television programmes. In ESL countries, local newspapers, and local radio and television programmes often use English, making the mass media a strong agent of the English language.

Respondents were asked to indicate those areas that they know to affect them.

Evidence in Figure 4.3 is that besides talking to their pupils many respondents (78%) are exposed to all forms of exposure to the English language except that this exposure excludes travel to English-speaking countries. Only 20% included travel in the forms of exposure to English.



*Figure 4.3*      *Respondents' use of English beside talking to their pupils*

#### 4.2.5.4 Frequency of English use with native speakers

With regard to frequency of English use with native speakers, 42% of the respondents said ‘everyday’ (see Figure 4.4). Although seemingly unrealistic given the small numbers of native English speakers around, their claims can be attributed to the role of English in domains where native English speakers may be present such as religion, entertainment, and shopping. This category of respondents can be said to be making strong claims about their higher English language proficiency. However, those respondents who said *once or twice a week* (14%) and *once or twice a month* (10%) appear to reflect the reality of life in Botswana better in terms of the small number of native English speakers. Equally realistic are those who indicated that they *rarely* did (18%) and those who said they did only *a few times a year* (20%).

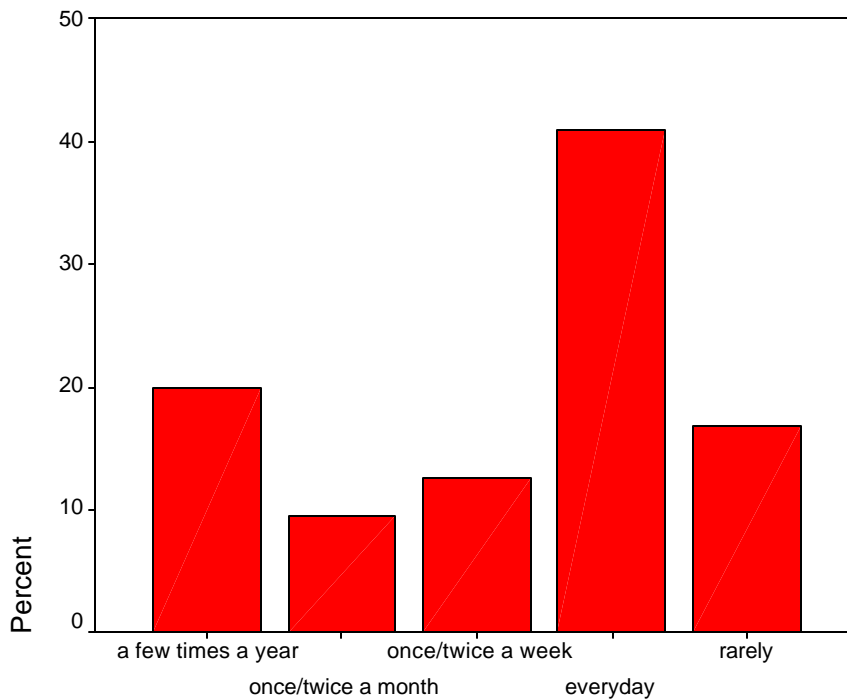


Figure 4.4 Frequency of English use with native speakers of English



#### 4.2.5.5 Settings of English use with native speakers

The research proceeded to see in what settings the interaction reported in paragraph 4.2.5.4 above took place. The findings are reported in figure 4.5:

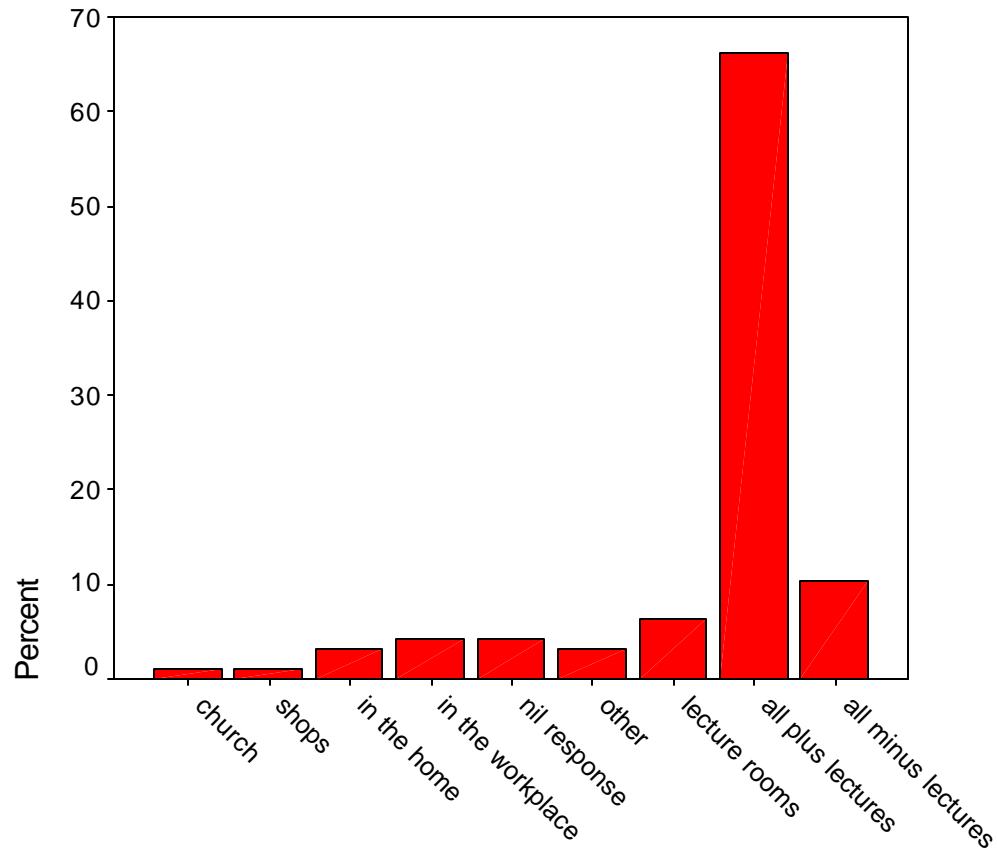


Figure 4.5 Settings of English use with native speakers

With regard to settings of English use with native speakers, 8% reported lecture rooms and 5% reported the workplace. However, 68% indicated all settings, including about 5% who reported this interaction as taking place in the home, and about 11% for whom this interaction exists but not in the lecture rooms. It may be concluded that with differing degrees of frequency, respondents have very few informal encounters with native speakers. Formal settings reduce the spontaneity with which English may be used. Respondents

generated the following 'other' settings, ranging from decent to indecent ones, where they use English with native speakers: *social balls, salon, hospital, bars, 'shebeen', brothel, pen-pals, e-mail, sports grounds, prostitutes, liquor restaurants, recreational places, pubs, and social gatherings*. One respondent referred to such settings as '*unusual places*'. While associating the use of English with the 'unusual places' is ironic coming from a teacher of that language, the perception that English can corrupt is strong in the minds of some ESL users.

### **(b) Respondents' perception of their competence in English and ELT**

#### *4.2.5.6 Impact of university on internees' command of English*

As was to be expected, the majority (88 out of 95 respondents) agreed that the university experience had affected their command of English for the '*better*'. Six (6) respondents said the experience was '*better in some areas and worse in others*'. One respondent was *undecided* on this item.

#### *4.2.5.7 Impact of pupils as internees' communicative partners*

Respondents were then asked how their command of English was affected by the fact that as teachers, their main communicative partners are the pupils whose English is poorer than theirs. Responses to the statement: '*It does \_\_\_\_\_ damage to my English*' are reported in figure 4.6:

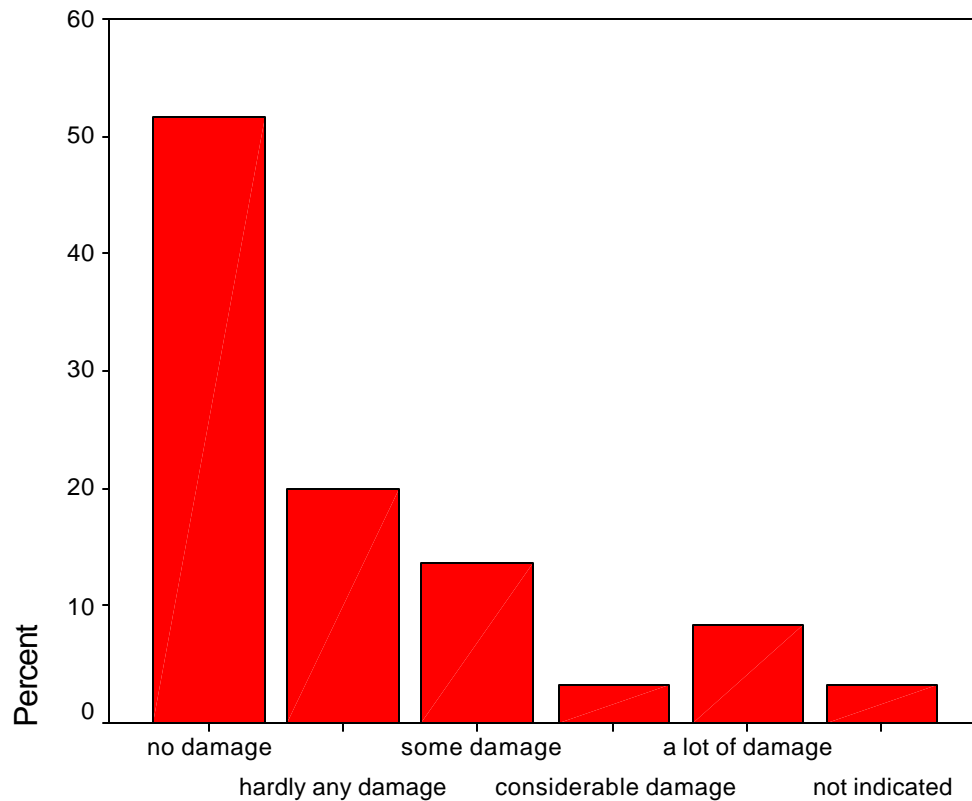


Figure 4.6 Impact of having pupils as communicative partners

The majority of respondents (51%) said '*no damage*', and '*hardly any*' (20%). Altogether, those who said '*some*' (14%), '*considerable*' (4%), and '*a lot*' (8%) were in the minority. Five (about 3%) respondents did *not indicate* their response. The results on 'damage' point to the nature of English teaching and learning: because the teacher talks, and pupils listen, there is very little 'partnership' in the communication process and the teacher's English may remain unaffected by the pupils' errors. Very little opportunity exists for the teacher to listen to the pupils' use of English to talk about real life issues with their teacher.

#### 4.2.5.8 *Internees' perceived difficulties with English*

When responses to whether they had personal difficulties with English in the ten (10) areas listed on the questionnaire were analysed, the ranking of the difficulties appeared as shown in Table 4.1:

**Table 4.1: Rank order of perceived difficulties with English**

Perceived difficulty	%
Grammar	22
How to address different people respectfully	16
Vocabulary	14
Pronunciation	14
Undecided	10
How to begin or end a conversation	8
Deciding what is an appropriate topic	6
Giving and receiving praise	4
How to respond to requests	2
How to respond to invitations	2
How to receive or give apologies	2

- *Grammar*

*Grammar* was perceived to be the most dominant area of difficulty by 22% of the respondents. That grammar is perceived as a problem area, is largely attributable to pedagogical factors arising from the way English is taught and learnt in ESL situations: largely through methods that stress grammatical correctness! The result indicates the importance non-NESTs attach to grammar as a result of their learning experiences. As teachers of English, grammar also represents what non-NESTs regard as the content for their language lessons. Citing grammar as a problem area also indicates the traditional expectations of both colleagues and pupils of non-NESTs: that knowing English is demonstrated by the teacher's ability to explain complex sentence structures referred to him/her from time to time.

- *Appropriate address*

Following grammar, sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents named '*How to address different people respectfully*' as an area of perceived difficulty. This is an important sociological factor for African ESL speakers. Culturally, Africans learn early that correct forms of address are deeply rooted in the norms of proper speech because they demonstrate respect for the person addressed. Secondly, and more importantly, English is associated with being educated, and so, not knowing how to avoid socially unacceptable norms of speech can make non-NESTs hopelessly insecure in this area. This seems to contradict Medgyes's (1994:34) findings where his non-NEST sample with mainly European cultural norms, considered *vocabulary* as one of their most common problem areas. The apparent contradiction is significant as an indication that non-NESTs are not homogeneous in their perception of difficulties with English.

- *Vocabulary and pronunciation*

*Vocabulary* (cited by 14% of the respondents) and *pronunciation* (also cited by 14% of the respondents) seem to be considered relatively less problematic areas than *grammar* and *appropriate address*.

Regarding *vocabulary*, non-NESTs possess two sets of vocabulary that they resort to depending on the listener, the topic, and the setting: a set in the mother tongue for use say, at home, and another set in English for use in academic or workplace settings. Thus, for example, there are objects in an office, which non-NESTs know only in English; and those traditional objects in a home for which no equivalent English word is known. So in assessing how appropriate one's vocabulary was, one would need to examine one's

surroundings first. Respondents seem to be indicating that they feel their vocabulary is sufficient for their jobs in schools. After all, they feel they have an adequate knowledge of the names of all the objects and concepts they interact with at work.

As for *pronunciation*, respondents do not seem to regard this area as critically problematic for them perhaps because they know that they achieve intelligibility. And, because the university campus is composed of a wide range of foreign nationals, and all using English, one tends to cling on to one's pronunciation as a way of identity. The proverbial 'been-to' Western English pronunciation tends to be ridiculed.

- *\*Undecided*

Those who were *'undecided'* (representing 10% of the respondents) comprise a curious category because for this study indecision on these issues raises more questions than answers. They implicitly or explicitly, did not perceive the ten categories as problem areas at all. Some of the respondents explicitly wrote on the questionnaire: *'not applicable'*, *'no problems'*, *'I don't have any problems'*. What is curious is the strong implication for INSET of their position: is INSET helpful for improving the language competence of those non-NESTs who feel they are sufficiently fluent? Is this category of respondents, however small, saying they do not appreciate the extra years of training, as it is a waste of time? Answers to these questions have important implications for selecting entrants into the programme and for the course components. Both these implications are discussed in chapter 5.

- *How to begin or end a conversation*

Only eight percent (8%) of respondents considered *'how to begin or end a conversation'* a problem area. Conversational English where one may require initiating and ending a discourse, may not be perceived as a problem area for the respondents because all the respondents can use the national language to interact with one another outside lecture rooms. Within the confines of the lecture rooms, it is not students who initiate the discourse, and, situations do not frequently arise where the exclusive use of English is demanded of a university student in a large class of ninety-five. Much academic discourse of majority of these respondents is also characterized by code switching and code-mixing.

- *Deciding what is an appropriate topic*

This area, with six percent (6%) of respondents, does not appear to be considered a critical area of difficulty by many respondents. This is attributable to the fact that these students are mature men and women. But if one considered the lecture room situations in which the respondents often require the use of English, their role as initiators of the discourse in such situations is greatly reduced. It is always the lecturer who sets the discourse topic for the day and talks for the whole duration of the lecture. For this reason this area was not considered a challenging one.

- *Giving and receiving praise*

With only four percent (4%) of respondents, this area of difficulty is perceived by a small number to be problematic. Most ITE programmes (of which all the respondents are products) stress the teacher's need to praise learners regularly. The result reflects how the demands of the workplace have reduced the level of difficulty here.

- *Requests, invitations, and apologies*

Each of these three areas was curiously considered a problem area by only two percent (2%) of respondents. The reason for this may be, once again, due to the maturity of these respondents minimising what would seriously be a problem for beginners.

#### 4.2.5.9 *Impact of English difficulties on ability to teach it*

Since the way these respondents were taught is the way they themselves teach, the research then proceeded to establish the extent to which the respondents considered the perceived difficulties a hindrance in their work of teaching in ESL classroom settings. The results are presented below in Figure 4.7

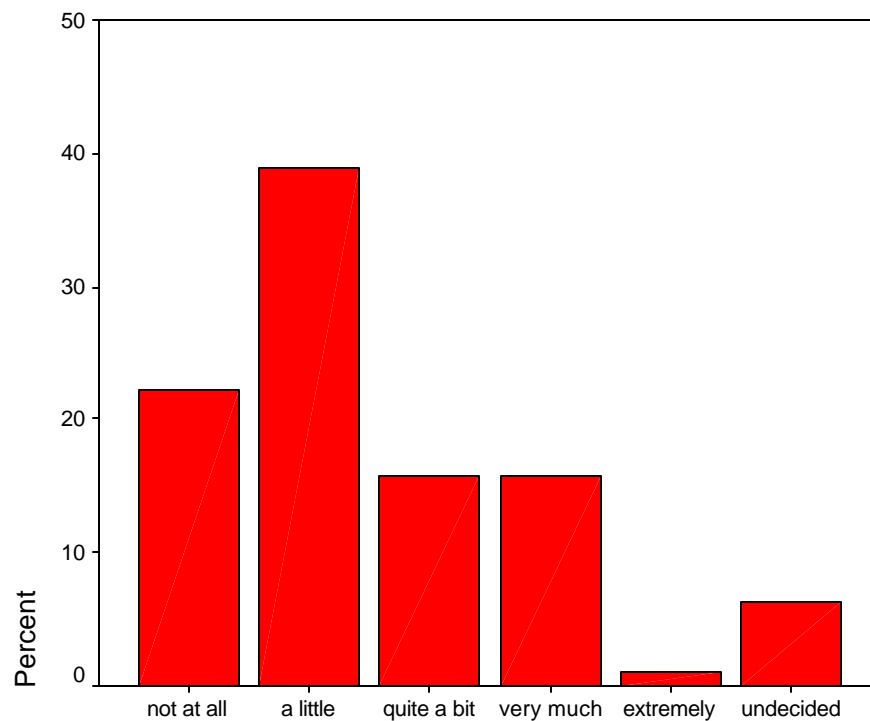


Figure 4.7 *Impact of difficulties on ability to teach English*

Regarding the impact of their personal difficulties on classroom ELT, figure 4.7 shows that 39% of respondents said *a little*, 15% said *quite a bit*, 15% said *very much*, and 1% said



*extremely*. However, about 21% think their difficulties have no impact, while 5% are undecided on this issue. Responses to this item indicate that the majority of these respondents are confirming the fact that teaching English in ESL situations is a descriptive activity.

#### **4.2.6 The interview**

Each interview session began with the following instructions: *Please feel free to speak your mind. This information will remain confidential, and your name will not be mentioned.* Sessions were tape-recorded.

#### **4.2.7 Results and discussion of results from the interviews**

The following questions in italics were asked in the order presented below:

- *How has the university changed your overall competence in English?*

It was interesting to hear how interviewees expressed their views confidently and eloquently. They were unanimous that university study had improved their overall competence in English. They were particularly emphatic on the greater confidence they felt with using English for communication as a result of the programme. Take for instance Rampa (*nom de plume*, and all the other names mentioned in this section of the study are not the real names of interviewees) whose sentiments '*I communicate better...I feel there is great change*' adequately sums up many of the opinions expressed.

- *What exactly brought about this change?*

Interviewees provided a number of different reasons to account for their improved competence; but whatever the reason, it was apparent that all the interviewees were aware of the interactive nature of university education and the important role English plays in this interaction, and that this was beneficial to their improved performance. Molly attributed this to the presence at the University of Botswana of people for whom English was the only lingua franca *'During my time I was here ...I was interested to share my views with many people who cannot speak my first language'*. For Tumelo this was *'due to the many presentation we do in English ...even presentations for Setswana are in English'*. Like her, Naledi thinks it is *'the research I do and when I communicate with fellow students; at UB (the University of Botswana) I am not given a chance to translate as was the case at work'*. Thuso attributes this to the fact that *'oral expression, written materials, are all in English'*, while Tefo attributes it to *'the research and the group discussions'*.

- *What specific areas of English do you still feel uncomfortable about?*

Despite their fluency and vivid confidence during the interviews, many interviewees felt that grammar was an area of English that left them feeling very inadequate. They complained that their lecturers repeatedly regarded them as incompetent at grammar. Badisa has come to this conclusion because the *'comments on my assignments are always about grammar'*. Like her, Nandi has observed that her *'research paper and other assignments were criticised for weak grammar'*. Alina's opinion that *'one is never quite sure about grammar'* is one of a persistent sense of insecurity, inadequacy, and uncertainty. Yet for Lorato, for whom linguistic correctness is paramount, the words *'grammar is a must... and I have a problem with it'* indicate a resigned acceptance of one's

fate. Tiro's opinion that her problem was with '*speaking English in public*' shifted the main area of difficulty from grammar *per se* to being determined by the setting.

Two interviewees expressed the slightly different opinion that the difficulty with English was with the task of teaching it. For Elizabeth, the discomfort with English arose from the task of teaching Standard Two English, and not from her personal incompetence with English, by blaming the textbook in use at this level. She said, '*Standard two English ...I regard it as the most difficult level because the textbook they are using seems to be at an advanced level*'. Goretti, another interviewee, felt ill prepared to teach poetry which she regarded as her main area of difficulty because of its foreignness and says, '*English poetry is quite difficult ... or Nigerian poetry especially. Why not local poets?*' Goretti's opinion seems to be that what makes poetry difficult to teach is because it is foreign.

- *Do you feel this will affect people's expectations of you as 'a specialist'? Why?*

Their confidence returned once more when this question was asked. Some felt they had attained something that their peers envied and that they were therefore proud to return to the field. For instance, Badisa, despite her admission of discomfort with grammar said, '*in the field, I am more qualified than they are so I am confident. I know people will put tests on me but I am not worried. At least I know more than those teachers that have not been to university*'. Others felt that despite personal difficulties, they were confident they would cope better. Naledi for example was confident because her difficulties with English '*will not affect my pupil's learning as I know their needs*'. Alina retorted, '*I think my discomfort with grammar might, but not in speaking...may be in writing!*' Tumelo captured the

perception of second language learning as a lifelong process when she said *'not at all, because learning has not stopped'*.

- *Looking back, are there moments in your teaching of English that you would describe as your happiest moments? Why?*

The general opinion was that the task of classroom ELT was responsible for the contentment they felt. Their opinions underscored their language teaching attributes. Tiro summed up the task of ELT in these words *'all English lessons were happy moments'*. Like her, Alina believes that *'there are many happy moments that come with teaching English'*. In Naledi's view, job satisfaction arising from when *'when my pupils could express themselves correctly and orally in English'* was delightful. Likewise for Rampa, who says *'it is my best subject...I have produced pupils who communicate; and one day I was assessed by an SEO and he was very impressed about the way I teach English'*. For Nandi it was the nature of the task itself and she says she was *'happy when teaching stories'*. Yet for Molly it was the level of the class that brought contentment when she says *'happy when teaching upper classes but especially when children were fluent in English'*. For Dora, it was the technique she always used. She said *'I began my lessons with news and I felt these worked well'*.

- *What were your worst moments? Why?*

The few who recalled unpleasant moments attributed them to the school administrators. Dora recalled the moment she *'cried when told to teach upper classes when all along I had taught lower standards'*. Nandi, who was perceived as incompetent by her head teacher, recalled the *'head's negative assessment I got one day about using difficult English for the children when my children had no problem with it'*. An aggressive administration style was

the cause of unhappiness for Tiro who said *'The head teacher would confront us in front of children, say when one was being assessed'*. Others however, attributed such moments to themselves, as in Badisa's case, sad moments occur *'when you are unprepared'*; and for Tumelo, who blames other teachers, sad moments are *'when children fail to follow and you have to change the method especially in composition writing because my pupils had not had good teachers'*.

- *You are about to return to the field as a language specialist teacher. What are your feelings about this? Please give reasons.*

Responses to this question echoed the feeling that the programme was beneficial as Rampa declares *'many people are afraid of this language but I am not. I've improved my English so I am prepared. I feel complete now as a specialist'*. Molly however saw the prospect of returning to the schools to teach 'young children', detrimental to her attained competence in English. She said, *'My level of English will go down because I am going to teach young children. I like English as a subject'*. But besides this dissenting opinion she was elated by the prospect and added that she was *'proud to be a teacher of a language that tremendously enables students, the community, the country to involve itself globally'*. Of the new roles ahead, Naledi said, *'It is a challenge to me...most of the time I will be asked to run workshops but it does not bother me'*.

- *Is there anything else you would like to discuss that we have not touched?*

Though many interviewees were eager to end the interview by saying they had nothing more to say, opinions on a range of subjects were heard from those who preferred to say something additional. As advice for fellow teachers Naledi said she would like to *'encourage my colleagues to use English so that we model the pupils, because a teacher's*

*discomfort with English affects his own personal growth and also affects the children he teaches because they feel inadequate and don't strive to do better*'. On the rather thorny issue of language in education policy Molly said *'English should be the medium of instruction right from standard one'*. On the benefits of being bilingual/trilingual, Alina thought that *'opportunities are greater when you know more than one language'*. On future of INSET programmes, Tiro felt that *'refresher courses are needed for many teachers'*. And finally, on the primary school syllabus Tumelo thought that *'we should be more serious on children's literature'*.

#### **4.2.8 Synthesis**

From the questionnaire and interviews, English is clearly encountered with the formal variety of English as the predominant form. The results also confirm that the subjects of this study have relatively little informal interaction with native speakers of that language. These two factors explain why non-NESTs tend to think of their English language competence in linguistic terms only. From the questionnaire non-NESTs considered *grammar* (and *appropriate address*) as their main areas of difficulty. The interview results also confirmed this as the voices of the interviewees resonated on the issue of grammar being a regular cause of complaint from their lecturers. These results confirm the hypothesis of this specific aspect of the study that:

- *the confidence of non-NESTs with regard to command of English, which affects the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching of English, is low.*

Responses to specific questionnaire items showed that the English learning experiences are largely received in highly restricted and formal settings at their workplaces in the schools,

at the colleges as ITE trainees, and at the university as current INSET participants. The regular communicative partners of the respondents are largely non-native speakers of English. These include workmates, classmates, lecturers, and the pupils they teach. The pupils in the classrooms often speak poorer English than their teachers, so they provide little interactive opportunities for non-NESTs. Interviewees however showed a good grasp of the standard variety that they get to learn. They are aware of its features, such as the use of complete grammatical sentences both in writing and in speech.

A feeling of inadequacy about English grammar was apparent from the respondents and interviewees. From the questionnaire the researcher attributed the feeling of inadequacy to their English learning experiences. The interview confirmed this when a representative sample of interviewees repeatedly attributed it to the comments from their lecturers about their weak grammar in their written assignments.

Negative perception of their grammatical competence can also be attributed to the demands of the job of ELT. According to Mohammed (1997:50), pupils try to discover L2 rules from the text through hypothesizing and testing. What classroom grammar instruction provides, are the opportunities to add to, confirm, or modify the hypothetical rules, which the pupils formulate for themselves. The subjects of this study appear to be apprehensive that their grammatical competence is inadequate for them to provide their pupils such opportunities.

Ironically, despite the low confidence about their grammatical competence, the majority of respondents felt that this did not considerably hinder their ability to teach English. These respondents are confirming the fact that teaching English in ESL situations is a descriptive activity. It is not taught as a living language with which the pupil is enabled to express a wide range of real life needs. Instead, the pupil is shown, by description alone (see transcription of lesson O Appendix D), how those who choose to use English do it. In such a situation, the teacher's personal difficulties with English do not hinder one from 'describing the nature of the problem' to the pupils.

Ascertaining the origin of such negative perception, however, is not as important as the effect the perception has for ELT. It is argued that feelings of inadequacy affect the confidence with which non-NESTs confront the task of ELT in the classroom. Because English is always encountered with the standard variety as the norm non-NESTs get to regard themselves as perpetrators of the heinous crime of 'murdering' the English language. Such a perception exhibits itself in several ways. Some of these ways, which are indeed an invocation of the *monitor hypothesis* (paragraph 4.1.1), include:

- Paying too much attention to grammatical and structural correctness,
- Excessive criticism of self or by peers,
- Promoting listening for errors,
- Creating an overwhelming fear of errors, and
- Over-reliance on the grammar text book.



In a discussion of the so-called non-standard varieties within native-speaker settings, Corson (2001:89) noted that speakers of non-standard varieties tend to collaborate in their own disempowerment by seeing their own varieties in a negative way, thus reinforcing their own disempowerment. Such negativity is injurious to effective ELT. Evidence from the questionnaire and interviews used in this study indicates that these feelings arise in non-NESTs from three causes:

- Mistrust of the effectiveness of one's own variety;
- Ignorance of attributes of being non-NESTs; and
- Insistence on linguistic correctness, rather than communicative competence.

Figure 4.8 attempts to sum up these causes with a brief mention of how they are exhibited by non-NESTs:

Figure 4.8 *Factors affecting language teachers' confidence*

**Factor 1: Mistrust of varieties of English; Consequently:**

- Non-NEST seen as 'murdering the language'
- Perception that one's grammar is wrong
- Perception that one variety is superior, foreign varieties are mocked

**Factor 2: Ignorance of attributes of being non-NESTs; Consequently:**

- Apologizes often that 'English is not my mother tongue'
- Doubts adequacy of own English teacher preparation processes
- Dull lessons despite the possibility of fun

**Factor 3: Insistence on linguistic, and not on communicative competence;**

Consequently:

- Correctness is seen as paramount; error is sin!
- Rigidly uses the grammar text book
- Teaching is by description only

So as to promote their self-confidence, the next section gives an account of the presence of intelligible and acceptable English in the ESL classrooms taught by non-NESTs.

### **4.3 DOES A STANDARD VARIETY OF ENGLISH EXIST IN ESL CLASSROOMS?**

A view justifiably exists that dismisses discussions of standard in any variety of a language because the word ‘standard’ itself is ambiguous. To use Alptekin’s (2002:57) words, the word *standard* ‘portrays a monolithic perception of the native speaker’s language and culture ...fails to reflect the lingua franca status of English’. Corson (2001:67), speaking from native-speaker contexts, points to the fact that most speakers of a language use a variety that differs in recognizable ways from the standard variety; and that none of these varieties is in any sense inferior to the standard variety in grammar, accent, or phonology. The view further points to a declining view of standard ‘correctness’ a term that Corson (*ibid.*) considers to be perpetuated by the school system, very ideological and therefore subjective, and not linguistic, as he argues:

*Historically, schools have supported this ideology of correctness, because it seems to offer an objective benchmark to support the credentialism that formal education has as one of its functions. In other words, schools find it easier and fairer to give special status to some dominant language variety or other, partly because this simplifies the task of ranking and sorting students (Corson, 2001:71).*

Timmis (2002:240) notes the perplexity in the discussion of correctness caused by the gap between the English native speakers use and the English of grammar textbooks while ‘up

to 80% of communication in English takes place between non-native speakers'. Requiring non-native speakers to conform to native-speaker norms in all aspects of English for communication among themselves appears unjustified. These views leave non-NESTs in a state of confusion. Mhundwa (1999:24) argues that while, with regard to pronunciation, the confusion is a blessing because it leads to an acceptance of the pronunciation of non-NESTs irrespective of its deviation from Received Pronunciation, it is a problem because it does not prescribe a model to teach. He argues failure to prescribe results in pupils approximating English pronunciation from what they hear from different native and non-native speakers who might be using conflicting pronunciation systems.

In the view of this researcher, several features of English are standard across several users. It is therefore not possible to speak of a standard or a non-standard variety in reference to such features of English. These features are identified below.

**The Orthography of the English Language:** In as far as orthography is concerned, a standard variety exists in ESL classrooms because with orthography, it is not possible to speak of a standard or non-standard variety of English. This is because all varieties of English recognize only one standard orthography that every user must learn and use.

Non-NESTs uphold strict enforcement of the standard orthography and they are joined in the task by the publishing world. In the heyday of African literature, a famous writer, Ayi Kwei Armah, produced a powerfully symbolic novel that not only reflected the disillusionment about political independence, but also depicted the sociocultural

background of English usage. He however committed the heinous crime of misspelling the title of the book as ‘The Beautyful Ones are not Yet Born’. Earlier, another writer, Amos Tutuola, had used non-standard diction in the title ‘The Palm-wine Drinkard and His Dead Palm-wine Tapster in the Dead’s Town, 1952’. Coming from non-native users of English, the act nearly resulted in these authors failing to find a publisher.

Today, the speller check on modern computers guarantees that standard orthography is not violated in any way. It promptly asked whether the non-word ‘drinkard’ should not be changed to ‘drinker’, ‘drunkard’, or ‘drunkards’. Fandrych (2001:3), however, doubts the consistency and effectiveness of different word processor programmes (WordPerfect, Word 97, and WordPerfect 8, Word 2000, WordPerfect 9) adding that ‘many first language users even switch off the grammar and spell check options’. However, in my view, word processors are extremely especially helpful for non-NESTs in ensuring uniformity since their apparent inconsistency in orthography is quite minimal.

The orthography of the English language is a very complex system to learn. One complexity that bothers all learners of English is the disagreement between the pronunciation of a word and its spelling. For instance, the spelling ‘ou’ has countless pronunciations, as in: count, though, thorough, hiccough, tough, bough, fought, and, hour. Cases of same spelling but different pronunciation, as above, are further complicated by cases of same pronunciation but different spelling as in: sugar, ocean, nation, fashion, champagne, militia, and, conscious. However, all users have to learn one spelling in spite of these complexities. Even the slight differences in spelling between American and British

English do not constitute a completely different orthography since they affect only a small number of words. In some cases writers combine both American and British spellings in their work. However, whatever confusion this may cause the individual learner, it is expected that the pupil learns the accepted orthography of the English language and non-NESTs are insistent on this. With regard to orthography therefore, a standard variety exists in ESL classrooms.

**The vocabulary of the English language:** With regard to vocabulary, a large number of English words are common to all users and constitute what is regarded as standard vocabulary. There are however a few words that are peculiar to a particular region or country. In Botswana for instance, *lands* refers to farmlands, *cattlepost* refers to a cattle farm/ranch, *homeboy/girl* refers to village mate (and sometimes to a compatriot), and so on. However such words are very few indeed and do not constitute a different variety of English.

**The grammar of the English language:** One of the definitions of grammar is ‘a description of a language and the way in which linguistic units are put together to produce sentences in the language [including] the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language’ (Richards *et al*, 1985:125). Across users of English, uniformity exists in basic grammar as well as in the terminology linguists employ for reference to structural aspects. Such uniformity is helpful to non-NESTs when indicating and correcting pupil’s errors.

As the subjects of this study indicated regarding grammar, non-NESTs have a high regard for grammar even though some of them may not understand the role structural descriptions should play in classroom language teaching. The high regard for grammar is reflected in the way non-NESTs apply the rules of structure. In a study of Botswana teacher register, Arthur (1994:67), noted the following distinguishing features of this variety, which though peculiar, are insignificant with regard to intelligibility:

- *The tendency to prefer full rather contracted forms ('I shall' rather than 'I'll', or 'we have' rather than 'we've')*
- *Preponderance of grammatically well-formed sentences (with the expectation that pupils should respond to questions in full sentences rather than in short forms)*
- *Choice of lexis contributing to an impression of written language spoken aloud, as in the following examples in a maths lesson: (i) now today we are going to extend the addition up to ten thousands (ii) and when you use this sign you should note the following.*

The above observations are generalisable for many non-NESTs within ESL countries.

However, with regard to the *pronunciation, stress, and intonation of English*, four issues helpful for non-NESTs are noted:

a) It is wrong to expect a foreigner to speak a foreign language without a foreign accent. This is because different languages have different sound systems and different stress and rhythm patterns. Ross & Tomlinson (1980:107) provide helpful hints for non-NESTs teaching English speech in ESL situations. For instance they suggest that pupils only be corrected where they deviate markedly. But as Mhundwa (1999:24) argues, today

there is a growing acceptance of the pronunciation of non-NESTs irrespective of its deviation from Received Pronunciation.

b) Although many non-native speakers of English have very little interaction with native speakers, they recognize the different pronunciation as British, American, Australian, and so on. In the same way today non-native English pronunciations are accepted too as West African, or as Tswana, Nigerian, Malawian, and so on.

c) In the non-native-to-non-native situations that many African users of English find themselves, a strong 'native' speaker pronunciation would be quite inappropriate. In such situations, a speaker attempting native-speaker pronunciation sounds feigned and faked. Such a speaker is therefore ridiculed (Yankson, cited in Schmied 1991:184)

d) Since pronunciation is a genuine personal difference, what is important for the non-NESTs is to aim to achieve intelligibility. Such intelligibility is always available from the context. A further point made by Schmied (1991 *ibid*) is that it is also usual for pronunciation to 'be modified on the basis of common usage and acceptability as a culture-specific means of signalling sociolinguistic identity'. For that reason, the unmodified heavy native English accent by a native speaker becomes unintelligible in non-native speaker settings.

#### **4.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has demonstrated that grammar is strongly perceived as a specific area of difficulty among many non-NESTs. The *monitor hypothesis* was used to account for such a perception. The settings in which English is learnt tend to promote linguistic correctness. For non-NESTs, their English learning experiences contribute to the English they proceed to teach to the pupils in the classrooms. Because this variety of English is transmitted in



classroom settings, via processes of learning that are standard for many ESL countries, it is intelligible to native and non-native users of English alike. This should dispel feelings of inadequacy about the English non-NESTs possess. The value of accepting this variety of English as authentic is inestimable in the effectiveness with which non-NESTs teach it. So as to minimize the perpetuation of ineffective ELT methods such as the lecture method, models of language teacher preparation must not underrate this variety.

Having verified the teaching activities that characterize English language classrooms (chapter 2), the ELT competences of internees (chapter 3), and the English learning experiences of these internees and what they perceive to be their English language difficulties (chapter 4), the next chapter proposes an INSET model that responds to some of the pertinent issues raised so far.

## CHAPTER FIVE

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### A PROPOSED INSET MODEL FOR ELT

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5.5 A PROPOSED INSET MODEL FOR ELT

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Using ethnographic techniques: interviews, questionnaires, participant observations, and document analyses, the needs analysis so far conducted on the participants' teaching and linguistic competences has verified the needs and expectations of non-NESTs. The preceding chapters have contributed to the model components thus: *knowledge* (chapter 2), *skills* (chapter 3), and *attitudes* (chapter 4). This chapter will place these components into a framework before the model is proposed. The problems identified in the needs analysis are now discussed in 5.2 so as to develop an INSET model tailored to respond to them. A theoretical justification of the model's components is given in paragraph 5.2.1; and 5.2.2 presents a rationale for the model. The actual components of the model are outlined in 5.3 and the performance expectation of the graduate ELT product of the model are presented in 5.4. The model is then explained and diagrammatically presented in 5.5.

## 5.2 MODELS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In paragraph 1.1, the models of teacher education were outlined. Using that outline as a guide, the researcher has classified the current INSET programme at the University of Botswana as a *reflective model* because specific subjects and classroom methods are theoretically studied, reflected upon, an examination is written, and a Bachelor's degree is conferred. However, certain aspects of the University of Botswana INSET programme fit into the *applied science model*, because of the highly academic nature of the programme where theory is first transmitted to the participants, and upon completion of the course, the participant applies the theory. The *craft model* implies observing and copying master teachers, much like an apprentice learning a trade from who has mastered it. Currently,

subject specialists in the primary school do not have a master teacher model in the schools to observe and copy. The craft model is therefore unsuited to the current INSET programme at the University of Botswana. However, a CBTE model appears to fit in with the new thinking in Botswana regarding Outcomes-Based Education (OBE).

### **5.2.1 Outcomes-Based Education in Botswana**

Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is itself an offshoot of three very influential paradigms of the 1960's, namely: CBE, '*mastery learning*', and *criterion-referenced assessment* (CRA). In addition to the three, Van der Horst & McDonald (2002:7) include Tyler's *educational objectives* and *Bloom's taxonomy* as significant frameworks for organising instruction and assessment in OBE. According to Van der Horst & McDonald, OBE is 'a comprehensive approach to organising and operating an education system that is focused on and defined by the successful demonstration of learning achieved in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes' (2002:259). OBE requires the outcomes expected at the end of the learning experience to be stipulated so as to guide the teacher educators on what to teach, and the student teachers on what is expected of them.

Educational practice in Botswana has experienced a shift, albeit gradual, from content-based to OBE. Both the education review of 1977 and that of 1993 (RNCE 1977 and 1993) set the trend towards OBE by recommending shifting from a purely academic-oriented school curriculum to a life-skills/learner-centred curriculum supported by a broad-based assessment model. INSET programmes currently executed in teacher preparation institutions in Botswana can be seen as agents of this shift. The programmes are therefore targeting those teachers prepared under content-based approaches.

Although Van der Horst & McDonald (2002:14) rightly warn that OBE is not a panacea for all educational ills, for LTE programmes, OBE appears to respond better to the need for more effective second language teaching practices.

### **5.2.2 Rationale for proposing a new INSET model**

Such radical changes in the school system imply changes in the preparation of teachers. This study incorporates OBE principles in the development of an INSET model for the preparation of non-NESTs to become ELT specialists by identifying the knowledge, skills, and attitudes expected of non-NESTs. Rather than a reflective model of INSET, this model develops discrete knowledge, skills, and attitudes as outlined in 5.3.

The generic nature of primary school teaching dictates that the means by which to prepare subject specialists for the primary school rests in the use of INSET programmes. For purposes of ELT programmes, INSET intervention programmes are well-suited to attain the goal of teacher development because the linguistic competences and professional skills of non-NESTs are infinite. Since it is to be expected that the ELT specialists INSET produces teach English more effectively and more efficiently than before, INSET must enable entrants to gain a deeper understanding of the dynamics of the language situation in a multilingual society, and the forces that militate against effective teaching and learning of the language of education. However, current practice appears to be producing little change.

According to several authors on Botswana's education (Prophet 1995, Mannathoko 1995, Tabulawa 1997 & 1998, and Tafa 2001), the generic principles of OBE have not permeated

the practice of teacher preparation, though it clearly should. According to Tabulawa (1998:10) the reason for this is that traditional transmission teaching is socially expected: a good pupil listens to the teacher and '*learns*', and is '*thirsty for knowledge*'; the teacher's mastery of subject matter is beyond question; and the task of teaching is perceived as a preoccupation with '*right answers*' that pupils must reproduce. The shift to OBE threatens to deskill the teachers as it challenges their worldview and their accumulated knowledge, skills, and attitudes on which they have relied to solve practical classroom problems on a day-to-day basis.

As noted in paragraph 3.2.1 on lesson organisation, teacher educators expect teacher-centred lessons to contain pupil-centred activities also. Tabulawa (1998:9) strongly argues that the teacher-centred paradigm, on the one hand, and the pupil-centred, on the other, are a world apart and that 'to expect teachers and students to easily move from one [teacher-centred] to the other [learner-centred] is necessarily to expect them to make a paradigm shift which is never easy' (p.3). Evidence from the lessons observed in this study testifies to Tabulawa's views. Tabulawa's conclusion is that pedagogical change can only occur if the approaches we employ to address the changes embrace the wider social structure, such as 'the overarching cultural ambiance of Tswana society, the compartmentalised curriculum, and the hierarchical organisation of the education system and of the schools, amongst others' (p13). The researcher suggests that the interactive model of pedagogy discussed in 5.2.3 below is capable of combining teacher-centred and learner-centred strategies suggested by the above-mentioned author, and is therefore ideal for adopting in this model.

### **5.2.3 The interactive model of pedagogy**

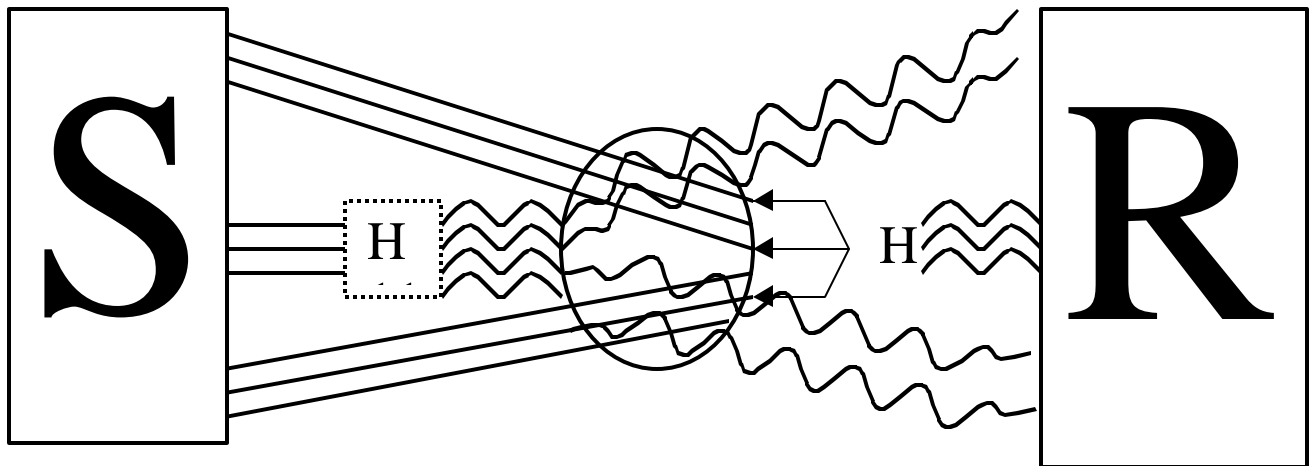
Is it possible to combine learner-centred instruction in a culture that is strongly transmission-teaching oriented? It is proposed that an interactive model of classroom instruction is helpful in improving the teaching of English in an ESL classroom without upsetting the cultural expectations of stakeholders. It accommodates the culturally preferred teaching/learning style of teacher-talk dominated teaching while at the same time it is learner-centred and language sensitive. Culturally, it must always be the teacher, not the pupils, who sets out deliberately and systematically to contribute to the pupils' education. On this point, Du Toit (1997:156) says the teacher's task is 'the creation of opportunities for students to interact directly with content in meaningful contexts of real communication. The opportunities consist of tasks and other problem-solving activities that are interactive, supportive and mediational and that are executed in an atmosphere that is intrinsically motivating'. The author continues to say that interactive instruction is transcendental and intentional in the same traditional way adults intentionally make young people acquainted with information, yet it is participatory and mediated.

In addition to being culturally appropriate, the interactive model of instruction upholds theories of learning. Because the interactive model is structured on the behaviourist's stimulus-response (S-R) and Piaget's stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) formula (Du Toit 1997:156), it avoids deskilling teachers through undermining teachers' knowledge, skills, and values. Instead it retains the teachers' traditional role of intentionally selecting what to teach; yet by that very act, the teacher surrenders that authority to the pupils and the learning experience takes on an interactionist approach. In figure 5.2 below, the teacher



takes on the role of mediator (H), by saying for instance, ‘tell me what you did yesterday afternoon’. This serves as the stimulus (S). The pupil (O) responds (R), but because the pupil’s responses are unpredictable, they require mediating (H) too. Figure 5.2 shows the main features of the mediated learning experience that arises:

Figure 5.2: The mediated learning experience



Thus the roles of initiator and respondent keep changing for the teacher and each pupil alike. Because the task is context embedded, it permits each pupil to use language in response to real needs depending on ‘what s/he did yesterday’. In the presence of interested listener(s), communication becomes interactively purposive, a factor crucial for effective language learning. Also in this way listening ceases to be for purposes of rote memorisation of what was heard, but for constructing meaning of what is being said.

It is however unjust to expect classroom teachers to shift to OBE methodology implied by interactive instruction models when the teacher educators do not. Making university lecture

rooms as interactive as possible is the challenge for not only teacher education lecturers, but also for those who offer support content courses to teacher education students.

#### **5.2.4 Who becomes an ELT specialist in the INSET programme?**

The selection process of primary school teacher entrants into ELT specialisation at the University of Botswana is chaotic. Although entrants into the programme meet the general university entrance requirements, entry into the specialisations (called ‘concentrations’) is by chance because it is governed more by performance in the First Year general courses than by their keen interest in the specialisation. The Mathematics and Science concentration often takes the ‘cream’ (students scoring 75% in Mathematics and Science). Then the Practical Subjects Concentration (consisting Art, Agriculture, Music, Physical Education, and Home Economics) takes the number of students that can conveniently utilise a laboratory (a maximum of fifteen students). The remaining students are then shared between the Languages Concentration, Special Topics Concentration, and the Social Studies/Religious Education Concentration. Consequently, the ELT entrant is often ill prepared for the task, and sits in an often very large class (over thirty-five). The findings discussed in 3.3 on who becomes an ELT specialist and what are they expected to achieve as classroom teachers, provided tangible evidence.

Because little use is made of the entrant’s self-selection on the basis of prior interest, unique capacity, and/or experience with ELT, the popularity of INSET becomes, as noted in 3.4, geared solely towards a desire by the entrant to be eligible for promotion and salary increments upon successful completion of the course. The popularity has further negatively

impacted on the programme in terms of the failure by the University of Botswana and the primary schools to handle field/clinical experiences for every participant.

From what was noted in paragraph 3.3 concerning pedagogical skills crucial to non-NESTs, a fundamental requirement for LTE are stringent selection procedures so as to eliminate unsuited individuals from becoming specialist teachers of English. In the linguistic situation where the language of day-to-day activities is not the language of education, the teacher of English must help pupils voice their opinions, feelings, and perceptions in order to resolve real personal, social, and learning problems.

#### **5.2.5 Towards an effective INSET programme via stringent gate-keeping**

Stringent gate-keeping practices, though unpopular, prevent people from entering specific professions. Accepting anyone to become an ELT specialist can result in passive involvement in the preparation programme and eventually, in the teaching of English itself. This must be the reason why training programmes for NESTs do not accept anyone to train to teach English just because one is a native speaker. While this point is noted, in the case of primary school teacher preparation, selecting prospective entrants for specialist roles is a complex task. It is complicated by what is called the generic nature of primary school teaching, which sees one teacher having to teach all subjects on the timetable. INSET provides the only chance when stringent selection procedures can be effectively followed.

One procedure is by Cross (1995:33-36) who suggested that selection procedures could start by trainers looking at the entrant's fluency in English. Cross argued that since the goal of ELT is language acquisition, such fluent speakers would provide effective models to

their pupils (Cross 1995:33). Determining the fluency of applicants objectively can be ascertained in a written entrance test. Another procedure is suggested by Edwards (1997:251-262). The author proposes beginning the selection process while the applicant is still teaching in a school. At this stage the applicant receives a detailed description of the course and an application form. According to the author, the programme's relevance (or lack of it) to one's work will be made apparent thus reducing chances of admitting passive entrants (Edwards 1997:253). The applicant will have the opportunity to reject or appreciate what the intervention will achieve for him/her, his/her pupils, and the entire education system. When an application is received, a language analysis task is sent to the applicant to write. The selection is finalized with an oral interview with the training institution.

Both procedures can be integrated into a single selection model that involves the school administration, the sponsoring body (usually the Ministry of Education), and the training institution. Section 5.2 turns to the main task of the study.

### **5.3 WHAT ARE THE ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS OF A PREPARATION PROGRAMME FOR NON-NESTS TO BECOME ELT SPECIALISTS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS?**

Due to the complexity and diversity of the working environments, the question '*what are the essential components of a preparation programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in primary schools?*' is a difficult one. In Botswana, besides differences arising from such factors as class size, availability or lack of teaching materials, school location and administrative style of the school, a complex and diverse primary school pupil profile

exists and can be summed up as follows: the age range of primary school pupils is on average from six to about sixteen years of age; the pupils have diverse linguistic backgrounds in that although for most English is a second language after Setswana, there are many others for whom English and Setswana are both new languages. For the former category of pupils, a programme called *breakthrough to Setswana*, is in place for them to make the transition from oracy to literacy in Setswana. The latter category of pupils is at different stages of readiness for transition from oracy to literacy in any language, whether home or the school language. There are some, for example, whose written form of the main language is non-existent, and will therefore rely on the teacher to provide the breakthrough to literacy and numeracy in that language, if the teacher speaks it. A few of the pupils for whom transition from oracy to literacy in English is less problematic, are those receiving exposure to English at home from parents, older siblings, playmates, or from pre-school. A substantial number of pupils however encounter English for the first time at school in Standard One. Sometimes, code switching is likely to be a far more successful transition strategy for the teacher to use in teaching English especially in the lower beginner classes. For this reason, teachers must be bilingually fluent in English and Setswana, and/or another local language.

While the syllabus no doubt attempts to accommodate these vast profiles of pupils, a lot depends on the teacher's competence. Fortunately for ELT, the privileged status of English accompanied by a strong school and home pressure to learn the language, are strong motivating influences. What general guidelines can LTE employ so that effective ELT is not a matter of chance? A point credited to Marckwardt in Norris (1977:30) is that teacher

preparation for complex and diverse working environments, general principles are more helpful than are specific guidelines and course titles. Therefore, the components of an INSET programme we emphasize in this study are those contributing towards personal qualities such as, knowledge, skills, attitudes, and experiences, but avoid stipulating course credit hours.

Since the role to be performed dictates the personal qualities, the big challenges are that of specifying the role of the ELT specialist, and secondly, that of identifying the personal qualities of this specialist, which sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.3 discuss.

### **5.3.1 Specifying the role of the ELT specialist**

Because ELT specialists in the primary school are pioneers within the primary school system in Botswana and in several other ESL countries, specifying their new role helps in the effectiveness and efficiency with which they perform their duties. Information available on the Internet (visited August 2003) on the Norms and Standards for Educators dated 4<sup>th</sup> February 2000 makes reference to seven general roles defined by the South African education policy. The following roles below bear certain similarities but they have been proposed specifically for ELT specialists in the primary school:

- To keep abreast of developments in second language teaching theory and practice as *a researcher and reader*.
- To act as a *teaching/learning process manager* who evaluates the effectiveness of specific teaching procedures and materials for the class and the whole school.
- To make informed decisions about approaches, methods, and techniques for the whole school so as to fulfil the role of *resources organiser*.

- To act as *a counsellor* who evaluates pupils' progress in English; identifies their weaknesses and strengths, and adjusts instruction appropriately; develops pupils' other language skills such as reporting, story telling, literary appreciation, vocabulary, creative writing, and so on.
- To act as *a guide* who contributes to the pupils' social, emotional, intellectual growth, and who they are through exposure to local and foreign folklore, history, and literature.
- To act as *a facilitator of the communication process* between the pupils' real and perceived interlocutors through the mastery of both the receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing) in English.
- To provide exemplary leadership as *a needs analyst* in the school and classroom, so as to promote modernisation of ELT and of English learning across the curriculum.

### 5.3.2 Identifying the personal qualities of an ELT specialist

Personal qualities that distinguish a *generalist* from a *specialist* teacher must also be imparted to the ELT specialist trainees. Some of the following would be strongly recommended of a non-NEST ELT specialist:

- Demonstration of proficiency in spoken and written English at a level befitting the language teacher's role as a model, and comparable to other ELT professionals; combining accuracy, fluency, and wide acquaintance with writings in it.
- Appreciation of the sophisticated nature of English as an international language with spoken varieties that are characterised by social, regional, national differences, and yet globally intelligible in their written form.

- Understanding of the processes of language acquisition, and that of the subsequent learning of a second language, and the factors that influence these processes at different age levels.
- Reflection on the principles of second language pedagogy gained by actual teaching experience as well as from theory, and reflection on the application of these principles to various classroom situations and instructional materials.
- Understanding the interrelated nature of language skills; how the learner transfers these skills from L1 to L2; and from one school subject to the other.
- Demonstration of competence in designing tests and in interpreting the results of second language assessment of student progress and proficiency; and consequently, in the ability to evaluate the effectiveness of second language teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.
- Demonstration of appropriate skill and attitude in responding to pupils' English language errors in their speech and in their written work.

### **5.3.3 Experiential and received knowledge, skills, and values**

In developing the non-NEST model for ELT specialists in the primary school the following *goals* are intended:

- To advance and update the teachers' knowledge of the subject matter of English
- To advance the teachers' skills and pedagogical knowledge required for their new role as ELT specialists, and
- To remedy the teachers' deficiencies arising from their own perceptions of ELT and those arising from ITE which prepared them as generalists to teach all subjects on the timetable.



- To reduce passive involvement in the preparation programme through rigorous entry and completion processes

Such experiences are expected to enable non-NESTs acquire a combination of the following competences:

- A better grasp of both the local variety of English that learners get to hear, and the so-called ‘standard’ variety of English.
- A keener analytical awareness of English.
- A good understanding of second language teaching methods and approaches.
- A repertoire of relevant second language teaching techniques responsive to real classroom contexts.

The entrant’s *received and experiential* (terms derived from Wallace 1991: 54) knowledge becomes a resource in the INSET model proposed in this study. Experiential knowledge derives from actual accumulated involvement in the task of second language teaching, and comprises the continuing knowledge, skills, and values acquired through a number of carefully organised INSET procedures such as microteaching, video critiquing, peer teaching practice, and those from actual lesson observation in the schools. As for received knowledge, most ITE and INSET programmes traditionally cover the following (slightly adapted from Mariani 1979: 75-76):

- Sociology of education: to introduce trainees to the role of teacher, and to provide an understanding of the learning/teaching situation.
- Developmental psychology: to provide trainees with knowledge of the learner.

- Psychology of learning: to provide trainees with an understanding of the learning process.
- General Linguistics/Psycholinguistics/Sociolinguistics: to provide the trainees with what to teach.
- Applied linguistics/TESOL methodology: to provide trainees with methods and techniques.

The position taken throughout this study is that NESTs and non-NESTs require different preparation procedures. Medgyes (1994) who has investigated extensively the question whether NESTs and non-NESTs have a common repertoire of language teaching skills, argues that although ideally both NESTs and non-NESTs ought speak, listen, read, and write with equal competence, this is not usually the case, or at least certainly not the way they teach the mentioned skills (Medgyes 1994:57). For this reason, and those set forth in the discussion of roles (paragraph 5.2.1) and personal qualities (paragraph 5.2.2), *the essential components of an INSET preparation programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in the primary school* are outlined below (adapted from Norris's 1977:30-35 discussion of TESOL guidelines for American school teachers):

#### *5.3.3.1 Component 1: Academic specialization*

The *goal* of this component is to remedy the deficiencies arising from the entrants' perceptions of ELT and those arising from ITE which prepared them as generalists to teach all subjects on the school timetable. A related goal is to advance and update entrants' knowledge of the subject matter of English. This component will comprise courses geared towards increasing the participants' understanding and knowledge of the nature of the

English language, the processes of second language learning and acquisition, language policies, and literary appreciation. The following list is recommended:

- a. Linguistics and literature in English: the nature of language; systematic organization of language; variation and change in language; major models of linguistic description; sub-systems of present-day English (grammatical, phonological/graphemic, and lexical/semantic); literary forms/genres; literary skills
- b. Psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics language acquisition processes in L1 and L2; varieties of English; language learning styles; basic socio-cultural variables in language use and language learning; social determiners of style
- c. Language policy: official and national language; multilingualism; language as a resource; language across the curriculum/the place of English in education in the education systems of ESL countries.

#### *5.3.3.2 Component 2: Pedagogy: foundations, and methods*

The *goal* of this component is to advance the entrants' pedagogical skills regarding ELT as well as reflecting on their new roles in the school. Courses geared towards increasing the participants' theoretical and methodological foundations, and reflection on practice of actual language teaching situations are emphasized. It will be acknowledged that participants will have dealt with general educational foundations during ITE. In addition they will have completed teaching practice as well as actual teaching prior to enrolling for INSET. So, emphasis should be placed on the following:

- a. Second language pedagogy: theoretical approaches to, and methods of teaching English as a second language; language teaching techniques and procedures;

curricula, teaching materials, and aids; adaptation of instructional materials to specific situations; professional information sources: journals, research reports, and professional organizations; design, implementation, and evaluation of innovative materials and techniques.

- b. Second language assessment: principles of testing; techniques and interpretation of second language assessment of student progress and proficiency; evaluation of teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.
- c. Reflections on second language teaching: live lesson observations; critiques of audio/video recorded English lessons; provide opportunities for discussion of materials and procedures for use in shaping learners' behaviour, and for use in curriculum development and evaluation; research project on an issue of relevance to second language classroom teaching.

#### *5.3.3.3 Component 3: Facilitating participant evaluation*

The goal of this component is to reduce passive involvement in the INSET programme. Admission to, retention in, and completion of the programme will take into consideration the participant's active involvement. The processes below would ensure the attainment of these *gaols*:

- a. Proficiency in English is ascertained prior to admission by satisfactory completion of entry materials as stipulated in paragraph 5.1.2 by sending prospective students detailed course information and an application form; sending successful applicants a written task similar to the sort trainees will encounter; preparing interview questions to follow up from the two stages above; and conducting the individual interview (approx. 30 minutes long). The

tasks for the applicant can be tailored in the light of official policy statements, and challenges thereof, such as the Report of the National Commission on Education (RNCE) 1993, and Vision 2016 (Republic of Botswana, 1997).

- b. Retention into the programme is stipulated by regulation that clearly outlines progression from year to year of study. Evaluation is by instruments appropriate to the competence in line with OBE procedures. The results are available for conferencing with individual participants regarding strengths and weaknesses; career and research openings; and so on.
- c. The institution maintains an up-to-date curriculum collection of materials, aids, and equipment commonly used in the teaching of English as a second language at all levels of the primary school. Journals, research reports, and other sources of supportive professional information are available and are current.

## **5.4 THE GRADUATE ELT SPECIALIST**

The issue of setting performance standards for teachers is helpful and has been tried before in Botswana's primary schools with the help of the Botswana Teaching Competency Instrument (BTCI 1985) administered by primary school head teachers. Currently, government is sensitizing its employees about the benefits of Performance Management System (PMS), a management tool that rewards workers who meet performance targets. The products of the model being proposed in this study would have to meet very high expectations from their employer. For purposes of developing a list of specific behaviours for English language teachers, ideas suggested for CBTE programmes particularly those of Fanselow (1977:53), provided a good guide and his ideas have been recast in paragraphs

5.4.1 to 5.4.3. The following sections stipulate what the graduate ELT specialist will be able to do specific to the pupils' goals.

#### **5.4.1 Meeting pupils' speaking and writing needs**

The graduate ELT specialist will be expected to assist pupils to develop their productive skill of speaking and writing. Pupils should be able to use English for communication in short and extended discourse about school subjects, personal feelings, information, opinions and imaginative thoughts. To meet this need, the specialist would have to teach classes in which both s/he and the class communicate personal feelings and experiences, information, opinions, imaginative thoughts, and general knowledge. For many pupils, experiences with breakthrough to literacy in the mother tongue, such as those from Breakthrough to Setswana used in Standard One, provide the transition needed for pupils to acquire the skills of speaking and writing in a second language.

#### **5.4.2 Meeting pupils' listening and reading needs**

The graduate ELT specialist will be expected to assist pupils develop their receptive skills of listening and reading. Pupils should be helped to attain literal and implied meaning from both short exchanges and extended discourse. To meet this need, the teacher must use listening comprehension exercises, and silent reading, followed by inference (open-ended) questions. Open-ended questions about the meaning of pictures, diagrams, gestures, and other mediums would be necessary. Once again, experiences with Breakthrough to Setswana can be emulated.

### 5.4.3 Meeting pupils' learning needs

In addition to meeting pupils' productive (speaking and writing) and receptive (listening and reading) needs, the presenting lessons must be in a manner that does not violate assumptions about how people use English globally and how people learn. Regarding how people use of English today as an international tool of communication, interlocutors can be of different nationalities. Although at the moment it is possible to predict that the pupils' immediate interlocutors will be their fellow nationals, globalization has implications that dictate otherwise. The graduate ELT specialist must therefore realize that Received Pronunciation is no longer considered the ultimate model, and that because English is characterized by variety today, a native-like accent is a myth.

Regarding the issue of how people learn will demand of the graduate to select materials, and techniques carefully in line with research findings from Second Language Acquisition, but in response to the individual pupil's uniqueness as a person.

## 5.5 A PROPOSED INSET MODEL FOR ELT

The above components are presented in diagram form in figure 5.3. The diagram borrows suggestions from Stuart (1997:5) who proposed an ITE model derived from a list of competences.

The model proposed considers the entrants' *experiential knowledge, skills, and attitudes* as important background resources during their INSET intervention process. The diagram therefore captures the entrants' hopes, models and images of 'good' and 'bad' teaching,

fears, and ambitions, ascertained by written interview prior to admission as crucial requirements to attaining the entrants' full involvement in the programme.

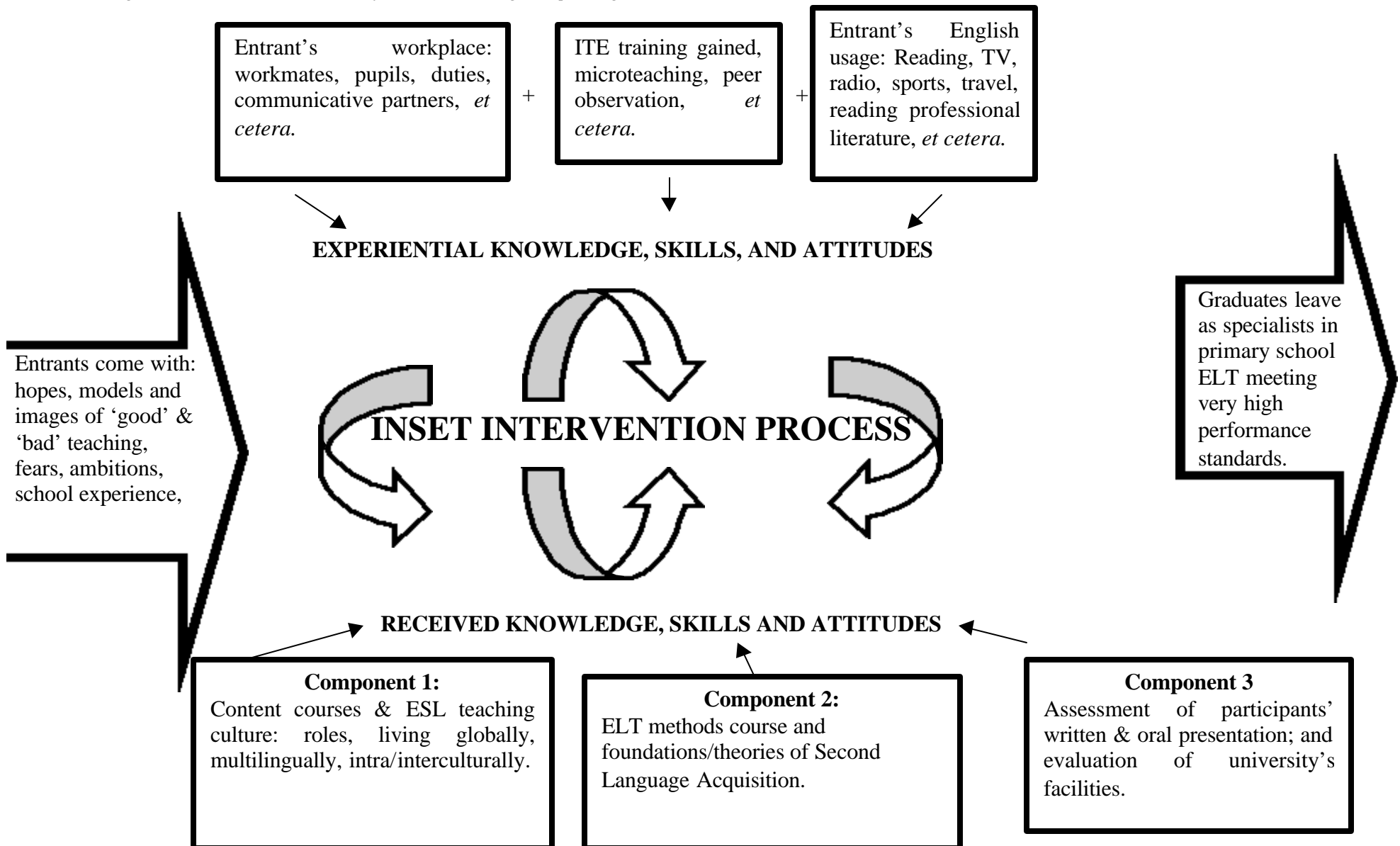
The intervention process provides entrants with what has been referred to as the *received knowledge, skills, and attitudes*, and consists of three components:

- The first component is the academic specialization consisting of content courses. It also includes topics in the culture of ESL teaching, such as: roles of English; and living globally, multilingually, intra/interculturally with English.
- The second component is the pedagogical studies component in which the ELT methods course, and foundations/theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) are presented.
- Assessment of entrants' written and oral presentation, and the evaluation of university's facilities to meet the preparation needs of entrants form the third component.

Although no time frame is suggested for each component, it is hoped that two years would be sufficient duration to complete the proposed course of study.



Figure 5.3: An INSET model for non-native English-speaking teachers



## CHAPTER SIX

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### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### **Contents**

- 6.1 INTRODUCTION
- 6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY
- 6.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
- 6.4 RECOMMENDED FUTURE RESEARCH
- 6.5 CONCLUSION

## **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main problem this study addressed is the continuing ineffective teaching of English as a second language in spite of the popularity of in-service teacher preparation programmes. As a solution to this problem, the purpose of this study was to develop a model for preparing ELT specialists in the primary school that responded to (a) the perceived linguistic needs of non-NESTs; (b) teachers' pedagogical weaknesses in classroom instruction; and (c) role expectations of ELT specialists in the primary school. The model would specify the essential components of an INSET preparation programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in primary schools.

As a means of situation analysis, the study examined participants in a four-year degree programme of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana that prepares teachers to become subject specialists in the primary school. Strengths and weaknesses were noted before proposing the teacher preparation model for language specialists. The proposed model is however not prescriptive and the proposed content is neither exhaustive nor limiting, but only broadly suggestive of the content of each instructional component. In so doing it is hoped that the product of the programme will become not only a well-educated person in the arts but also a highly proficient and self-confident person in the area of second language teaching and learning.

## **6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY**

In 1994 English officially became the medium of instruction from Standard Two onwards in Botswana's primary schools (RNPE 1994:59). The demand on teachers for increased

English use and proficiency with pupils, whose competence in the language was non-existent, was confounding. Not only were the teachers non-NESTs, they were also generalists by training. They teach all the subjects on the timetable. The move was therefore accompanied by the pronouncement that an accelerated programme of INSET be undertaken to improve the teaching of English as a subject from Standard one, with emphasis on oral communication (RNPE 1994:60). Against a background of ineffective ELT across the different levels of the school system (1.1.2), and of INSET programmes themselves (5.1), efforts for improvement are positively received as judged from class sizes (as shown in Figure 1.1) of INSET participants. In general, the popularity of English is also high (RNCE 1993:113) (1.1.2).

The study was motivated by the outcomes of an earlier study (Chimbganda & Kasule 1999) of the secondary school English teachers where it was argued that the symptoms of professional stress the teachers showed were related to the thoroughness of the *teachers' preparation* for the challenges of ESL teaching (1.2.1). It was argued that so far secondary school language teachers go through a generalised form of teacher preparation at the University of Botswana, in which ESL teaching methodology is *only a single course* among many other courses in educational foundations, philosophy and curriculum studies. It was also concluded that this form of LTE may not be adequate enough to enable secondary school language teachers to be supremely confident to *handle the complex* nature of second language teaching. In view of what was observed at the secondary school level, the *purpose* of the current study was to examine the preparation of *specialist language* teachers for the primary school. Primary school teacher programmes have to

contend with the generic nature of primary school teaching that sees one teacher having to teach all subjects on the timetable. Defining the role of the subject specialist in such a situation is complicated. Another complexity is the selection of entrants into the specialist preparation programme who may not have studied English as a subject of study before, except as a teaching subject during ITE. In addition, the programme content and duration for ELT specialists must be designed for such entrants so that on completion of the programme, their expertise is comparable with other specialists in the field such as those teachers proceeding to teach English in the secondary school.

A number of contextual and other factors (such as high teacher-pupil ratios, poor classroom resources, overly high expectations of good results, diverse pupil profiles, the physical classroom set-up, the mismatch between modern ELT approaches and the language situation in ESL countries) may account for the ineffectiveness of ELT in the primary school. However, the study opted to analyse the teacher preparation situation at the University of Botswana (where INSET participants, all non-NESTs, are preparing to become ELT specialists in the primary school) because, firstly, if we need to give pupils the best education, we must provide the best education to those who will teach them; and secondly, as language teacher educator, the researcher was enabled an easier entry point in terms of making research contacts, and piloting and administering the research instruments.

The *knowledge* component is outlined in chapter 2. Four views of what it means to know a second language are given because the potential for ESL classrooms to be communicative depends on the teaching activities the teacher chooses; that choice is dictated by these

views. Teacher talk (2.3.1) is also increasingly becoming accepted as a strong factor in communicative classrooms (hence the descriptive lessons recounted in chapter 3). But despite the communicative claims by language teachers, responses to an inventory of activities they recall using in the classroom, indicated that it was activities that were interactive, enjoyable, and stimulating that were not used as shown in Table 2.1. Since the respondents were in their final year, they were asked for their views on the content of an ideal INSET course (2.4.2.2) and indicated (as shown in Table 2.2) what courses they regarded as ‘needed’ and ‘most needed’.

Chapter 3 contains the *skills* of non-NESTs. The skills are reported against a background of eight assumptions (derived from official documents) about who becomes a primary school ELT specialist teacher; and what s/he is expected to achieve as a classroom language teachers is developed in 3.2. Against these assumptions, the teaching of fifteen internees is analyzed for pedagogical skills displayed (3.3). Since the language lessons observed were largely descriptive it is concluded that there are specific second language teaching needs being ignored by preparation programmes for primary school ELT which requires the non-NESTs to employ communicative language teaching approaches.

Chapter 4 contains the *attitudes* of non-NESTs regarding what they perceive as difficulties with the English language and how Krashen’s monitor theory (4.1.1) accounts for the incidences of negative perceptions in 4.2.5.8, 4.2.6, also in Table 4.1. The perceptions indicated that the confidence of non-NESTs is low with respect to grammar. Low confidence indicted a training need for INSET entrants even though respondents deny (in

4.2.5.9 and Figure 4.7) that it does not affect the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching. Respondents and interviewees exposed:

- A lack of awareness of their own teaching attributes
- A mistrust of the effectiveness of the non-native varieties of English; and
- An insistence on linguistic correctness (Figure 4.8).

To counter such negative perception, the teaching attributes were verified in 3.3.3.7 from notes taken during lessons conducted by internees; and in 4.3 the effectiveness of the non-native variety prevalent in ESL classrooms was demonstrated.

Having comprehensively analyzed the products of the current programme and noted the inadequacies, chapter 5 proposes an INSET model that responds to the shortcomings noted in preceding chapters.

## **6.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The purpose of this study was to develop an INSET model for preparing ELT specialists in the primary school that responded to (a) the perceived linguistic needs of non-NESTs; (b) teachers' pedagogical weaknesses in classroom instruction; and (c) role expectations of ELT specialists in the primary school. The model would specify the essential components of a training programme for non-nests to become ELT specialists in primary schools.

The conclusions and recommendations of the study follow below:

**Conclusion 1:**            **The perception of English language as a body of facts rather than a skill contributes to the ineffective teaching and**

**contradicts the principles of Communicative Language Teaching.**

Conclusion 1 is based on the following findings:

Evidence from the questionnaire (4.2.5), from personal interviews (4.2.7) regarding grammar, and from lessons observed (3.3) showed that the transmission of facts about English was common. Evidence from Lesson Observation Report Forms (LORF) which lecturers use to assess teaching, showed that lesson organization was expected to encourage transmission approaches, yet the syllabus is developed along Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches. The survey of classroom activities reported in 2.4.2.1 revealed that the least popular activities were those that appeared to be interactive, enjoyable, and stimulating. Asked what should a second language teacher know in order to be effective, respondents in table 2.2 indicated an awareness of the difficulties arising from teaching and learning English using traditional approaches and want to see a change.

**Recommendation 1**

An interactive model of pedagogy during teacher preparation reduces the perpetuation of the lecture method and promotes a communicative approach to classroom ELT.

**Recommendation 2**

Exposure to successful English lessons that employ CLT approaches (e.g. on video) is helpful for non-NESTs aspiring to eliminate feelings of inadequacy about their English competence and pedagogical competence.



**Conclusion 2:            Non-NESTs need different preparation programmes from those of NESTs**

Conclusion 2 is based on the following:

Responses to the questionnaire (paragraph 4.2.5) indicated that English is not learnt with the intention of interacting with native speakers. Much English use that goes on is in environments that are non-native to non-native. Secondly, what distinguishes NESTs from non-NESTs are the processes by which they learn English. The different processes dictate how each of these two categories of users should be prepared to teach it to non-native speakers. In 4.1.1 we presented the theoretical account for these differences; in 3.3.3.7 we verified how non-NESTs perceive their competence; and in 3.17 we compared the teaching attributes of these two categories of teachers, which if ignored, the result is a feeling of inadequacy by non-NESTs. In 4.3 we presented the fact that despite the differences, both have to teach the ‘standard variety of English’, however this is defined. Centuries of contact with English in places far away from ‘native speakers’ have resulted in the development of varieties of English that deviate from the so-called ‘native varieties’. Based on the differences in learning processes and purposes, non-NESTs need a different preparation programme such as is proposed in this study.

**Recommendation 3:**

Teacher preparation for non-NESTs should confront the subject from a different approach: that of English as an International Language, rather than English as Second Language.

**Conclusion 3:        The generic nature of primary school teaching dictates that only INSET programmes can be used in the preparation of ELT specialists in the primary school.**

Conclusion 3 arises from the broad organization of content at primary school level as detailed in paragraph 3.2.1. At both Lower and Upper levels, one teacher teaches all subjects. Teacher effectiveness is compromised when the teacher's subject content knowledge is doubtful, and since no one knows everything, it helps the primary school teacher's confidence when s/he identifies with one discipline and can deal with it competently.

**Recommendation 4:** Since primary school teacher recruitment cannot be organized around academic disciplines, a small ELT specialist group must be prepared so as to enable effective teaching.

**Conclusion 4:        The capacity of INSET to promote an interactive learning situation is beneficial to participants' language development.**

Conclusion 4 is based on the following:

The interactive model of pedagogy discussed in 5.2.3 underscored the language learning opportunities that can arise from skillfully organized classroom interactions. OBE approaches were found to promote pupil-centred learning (paragraph 5.2.1) and were therefore incorporated in the model proposed in this study.

**Recommendation 5:** Ways to sustain INSET programmes should be sought.

Figure 6.1 presents a summary of the conclusions and corresponding recommendations of this study.

*Figure 6.1 Summary of conclusions and recommendations*

CONCLUSIONS	RECOMMENDATIONS
<b>Conclusion 1</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The perception of English language as a body of facts, instead of as a skill, contributes to the ineffective teaching, and contradicts the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).</li> </ul>	<b>Recommendation 1</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>An interactive model of pedagogy during teacher preparation reduces the perpetuation of the lecture method.</li> </ul> <b>Recommendation 2</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Exposure to successful English lessons that employ CLT approaches e.g. on video, is helpful for non-NESTs.</li> </ul>
<b>Conclusion 2</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Non-NESTs need different preparation programmes from those of NESTs</li> </ul>	<b>Recommendation 3</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teacher preparation for non-NESTs should approach the subject from a different approach: that of English as an International Language, rather than English as Second Language.</li> </ul>
<b>Conclusion 3</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The generic nature of primary school teaching dictates that only INSET programmes can be used in the preparation of ELT specialists in the primary school.</li> </ul>	<b>Recommendation 4</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Since primary school teacher recruitment cannot be organised around academic disciplines, a small ELT specialist group must be prepared so as to enable effective teaching.</li> </ul>
<b>Conclusion 4</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The capacity of INSET to promote an interactive learning situation is beneficial to participants' language development.</li> </ul>	<b>Recommendation 5</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ways to sustain INSET programmes should be sought.</li> </ul>

## 6.4 RECOMMENDED FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to develop a model for preparing ELT specialists in the primary school that responded to (a) the perceived linguistic needs of non-NESTs; (b)

teachers' pedagogical weaknesses in classroom instruction; and (c) role expectations of ELT specialists in the primary school. The model specified the essential components of a training programme for non-NESTs to become ELT specialists in primary schools. The following were identified as requiring research:

- That the participants have to be prepared as bilingual teachers competent in both English (the official language) and Setswana (the national language), was deliberately overlooked in this study to avoid obscuring issues specific to classroom ELT. However, for a fuller examination of the pertinent issues, participants' linguistic and pedagogical competences in both languages, L1 and L2, need also to be assessed.
- Also deliberately overlooked in the study is the *competence of the teacher educators* themselves because it was assumed this matter is currently adequately met by the internal and external Quality Assurance Mechanisms employed at the University of Botswana. However, further verification of teacher educators' competence is vital and needs to be subjected to study.
- The extent to which all lecturers, teacher educators in particular, involved in the education of language teachers promote the effectiveness with which English is taught. Because language teacher educators predominantly use the lecture method, their products do likewise in the schools they are deployed.
- On sustainability of INSET programmes of the nature proposed in this study, because of the expected salary and promotion prospects of participants upon completion of the course of study, more information is still needed. Since *INSET*

*for new roles* targets teachers who have served for a considerable period, their length of service after the INSET intervention may not warrant the cost incurred.

- A reassessment of the duration of INSET programmes with a view to making them shorter. This point is raised because the four-year BEd programme that this study used as situation analysis has had its negative results on participants, especially the break-up of marriages, and the unsupervised young members of the family turning into delinquents. At the University of Botswana it is common for a participant to miss lectures for several days, as s/he has to travel home in an effort to rescue a marriage or an own child without much success. A shorter duration needs to be investigated for this reason.
- In order to maximize on the effectiveness of the preparation with regard to the linguistic and/or pedagogical competence of participants, there is a need to evaluate which component is more essential than which. For instance, from the inventory of courses the subjects of this study showed a preference for INSET courses in English language, linguistic, and psycholinguistics. A more carefully developed inventory than the one used in this study could be undertaken with the view of reducing programme duration from the current four years to two.
- Tracer studies are needed to evaluate the effectiveness with which graduates are meeting their new roles as ELT specialists by determining the impact of their instruction on pupils' achievement.
- In classrooms where the language of education is not the pupils' home language further research is needed in such aspects as the effectiveness of codeswitching as a tool for language teacher effectiveness in ELT.

It is apparent that as more research into the practice of second language teaching and learning unfolds, what non-NESTs will have to know, do, and learn will keep changing from time to time.

## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

In participant observer studies such as this one, the generalisability of results often presents some problems, especially because there is a large volume of information for analysis. A longitudinal study, though strongly recommended here, would have yielded even greater volumes of data to work with. The other problem is that information that is voluntarily given (as in questionnaires and interviews), tends to mask the complex issues that are being studied. Shipman (1981:41) cautions that in studies of this nature the researcher is likely to concentrate on different aspects of a “confused reality”. For instance, one of the central claims of the study was that in ESL countries English language use is largely between non-native and non-native speakers of English. From that premise it was then argued that NESTs and non-NESTs need different preparation programmes. However, in their responses to specific questionnaire items some respondents exaggerated the frequency of English use with native speakers of English. Similarly, during the interviews it was clear that some of the informants tinged their responses with exuberant subtleties, while others descended into incoherence.

However, in spite of these flaws, the central question that this study raises is whether the relatively small sample was sufficient enough to draw informed conclusions. It is the view of the researcher that the study acted as a window for peering into the INSET preparation

programmes for subject specialists in the primary school so that their components are understood from participants' perspectives. The many comments often heard from other serving teachers as one travels round the country during ESL teaching practice supervision, corroborated many of the views expressed by the sampled INSET participants in this study. Indeed the teaching of English in a diglossic situation in which the language of education is not the pupils' mother tongue remains both a professional challenge for ESL teachers and their educators. While this study makes no absolute claims, it deepened the researcher's understanding of the exigencies of the teacher preparation programmes. It is hoped that the study contributed in some measure to the infinite discussion on how best we can improve the quality of ESL teaching.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Questionnaire

Sex: F / M      Qualification prior to coming to university: Dip. Ed/ PTC

**Please answer the questions below as truthfully as you can**

1. How many years of training have you had altogether to qualify as a teacher? (Include all training before and after coming to university) \_\_\_\_\_ years

2. Show below all the classes you have ever taught English:

STANDARD    1          2          3          4          5          6          7

3. As a teacher, when do you speak English besides talking to your classes? (You may indicate more than one)

- READING ENGLISH BOOKS AND NEWSPAPERS
- READING PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE
- TALKING WITH ENGLISH SPEAKING COLLEAGUES
- TRAVELLING TO ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES
- CORRESPONDING WITH FRIENDS AND ACQUAINTANCES
- LISTENING TO RADIO AND TV PROGRAMMES

4. How often do you speak with native speakers of English? NEVER, RARELY,  
A FEW TIMES A YEAR, ONCE OR TWICE A MONTH, ONCE OR TWICE A WEEK,  
EVERYDAY

5. Indicate in what settings you found yourself talking to native speakers of English?

CHURCH, SHOPS, IN THE HOME, IN THE WORKPLACE, LECTURE ROOMS,  
NONE

Other settings (Please specify):

6. In your judgement, how has your coming to university affected your overall command of English? BETTER, BETTER IN SOME AREAS, WORSE IN OTHERS, WORSE

7. As a teacher your main communicative partners are the students whose English is poorer than yours. How does this affect your command of English?

It does \_\_\_\_\_ damage to my English. NO, HARDLY ANY, SOME, CONSIDERABLE,  
A LOT OF

8. Indicate (by ringing) whether you think you have personal difficulties with English in these areas?

GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, PRONUNCIATION, HOW TO BEGIN OR END A CONVERSATION, HOW TO ADDRESS DIFFERENT PEOPLE RESPECTFULLY, HOW TO RESPOND TO REQUESTS, HOW TO RESPOND TO INVITATIONS, HOW TO RECEIVE OR GIVE APOLOGIES, GIVING AND RECEIVING PRAISE, DECIDING WHAT IS AN APPROPRIATE TOPIC TO TALK ABOUT WHEN, WHERE, AND TO WHOM

9. To what extent do these difficulties hinder you in your work of teaching English?

NOT AT ALL, A LITTLE, QUITE A BIT, VERY MUCH, EXTREMELY



## APPENDIX B

### (i) Interview schedule guide

*Please feel free to respond. This information will remain confidential, and your name will not be mentioned.*

1. How has the university changed your overall competence in English?
2. What exactly brought about this change?
3. What specific areas of English do you still feel uncomfortable about?
4. Do you feel this will affect people's expectations of you as 'a specialist'? Why?
5. Looking back, are there moments in your teaching of English that you would describe as your happiest moments? Why?
6. What were your worst moments? Why?
7. You are about to return to the field as a language specialist teacher. What are your feelings about this? Please give reasons.

**(ii) The lesson observation schedule**

In this study, the Mitchel and Parkinson instrument for the analysis of teaching of second language teaching (Malamah-Thomas 1987:61) served as the lesson observation schedule.

Topic	Language activity	t-mode	p-mode	Class organization
Lesson A				
Lesson B				
Lesson C				
Lesson D				
Lesson E				
Lesson F				
Lesson G				
Lesson H				
Lesson I				
Lesson J				
Lesson K				
Lesson L				
Lesson M				
Lesson N				
Lesson O				

## APPENDIX C

### Inventory 1a

Inventory of classroom activities used in ESL classrooms

1. Circle the class you taught prior to coming to university:

1          2          3          4          5          6          7

2. Show by an 'x' the activities listed below that you recall using in that class

ACTIVITY
Silent reading
Dictation
Spelling test
Loud reading: one pupil after another
Creative work: e.g. drawing/colouring/creative writing after story reading
Cross-word puzzles
Tests
One pupil project
One pupil reciting
Checking each others work
Music/singing (as for teaching rhythm, rhyme)
Physical activity (as for teaching action verbs)
Sight walks (around the school to know what is called what)
Field trips
Brainstorming
Role-playing
Contests (e.g. boys vs. girls in a spelling test)
Debates
Teacher-led discussions
Team games (as in word building games)
Presentations/reports by individuals or groups
Presentations via audio-visuals, records, CDs, tapes, etc
Radio lesson
Question-and-answer
Lecture
Drama
Sending a child to the blackboard
Impromptu speaking
Story telling by one pupil
Using board games (e.g. scrabble)

In the space below write any other activities you have used in teaching English that is not listed above:

**Inventory 1b**

On a scale of “*least needed*”, “*needed*”, and “*most needed*” which of the topics listed below would you have wished to include in a 4-year INSET course for teachers of English such as yourself? Mark with x to indicate your choice.

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Least needed</i>	<i>Needed</i>	<i>Most needed</i>
Teaching writing			
Teaching speaking			
Teaching listening			
Teaching reading			
Teaching grammar			
Teaching vocabulary			
How to correct pupils' errors			
How to teach large classes			
How to teach English with computers			
Methods of language teaching			
Philosophy of education			
Educational psychology			
History of education			
Developing teaching materials			
History of the English language			
Teaching common idioms			
Teaching conversational English			
Classroom language games			
Video demonstrations of teaching			
Actual classroom teaching			
How to set language tests			
Evaluating teaching materials			
How to deal with marking			
Conducting research			
How to interpret the English syllabus			
English pronunciation			

In the space below, write anything else not included above that you feel is necessary for the teacher of English to know about during INSET:

---

## APPENDIX D

### Progress of actual lessons observed and recorded

#### Lesson A. Progress of a standard 6 English lesson following a reading of the day before

- The internee is talking to some pupils in front of the class in a low voice. Then, louder, she asks the whole class *'in our English lesson yesterday, what was our topic for yesterday?'* A long pause follows. The internee says *'Bonolo'* (*nom de plume*, and all other pupils' names mentioned in the study are not their real names). Bonolo stands up to speak.
- *'Our topic was about how to buy bread'* Bonolo says.
- *'Was it?'* The internee asks.
- *'No'* The pupils say and they explain that that was during the Setswana lesson.
- The internee says *'our topic yesterday. We were reading about ... Fancy?'*
- *'Our topic yesterday was the children of ... some countries'* Fancy says. The internee says *'some countries where?'* A pupil adds *'some countries from Africa'*.
- The internee asks *'what are the names of those children we talked about yesterday? Yes Nandi'*. Nandi's answer is accepted. The internee asks *'Who else?'* One pupil says *'Abdul'*. The internee said she thought Abdul had already been mentioned but the pupils say no. Four other names were also mentioned.
- With this as background, the internee then says *' we read about these children yesterday, now I want you to ask questions about these children'*. Marang raises his hand and asks *'who speaks Hausa and English?'*

- When this is answered the internee says *'another question'*. Mandisa asks *'who live in Lusaka capital of Zambia?'* After the teacher has corrected her grammatical error, she calls on a pupil to answer it. The answer is correct.
- The next question was *'who speaks Swahili and English?'* The correct answer was given but the pupil had mispronounced *'Swahili'* as *'Sahila'*. The internee corrects the speaker.
- The internee changes the lesson a little. She says *'this time I don't want a question, each one you have been asking questions which want someone's name. Now let's change. OK?'* The class says *'yes teacher'*. The first speaker asks *'what is the capital of Ethiopia?'* A correct answer is given.
- The next question is *'what language is spoken at Egypt?'* The internee corrects the wrong preposition. The answer is given by a pupil who tells the internee that her father comes from Egypt and speaks Arabic but that she herself can't because she was born in Kenya before coming to Botswana this year.
- The internee goes to the board and draws columns as follows: name/country/capital/ nationality/languages spoken. Then she says *'now let's ... I have a form here of which we have to complete looking at the information'*. Then the names of the children in the reading are called again as the right column is filled. After the internee has filled the first set of information, she says *'so, you take out your books. You draw a table like this one and you find the information we have about the six children from those stories below their pictures. OK? Find their names, the countries they come from ... and the languages they speak'*.
- The lesson ends.

### Lesson B. Progress of a standard 6 English lesson on ‘A football match’

- The internee begins the lesson ‘*so, we are going to talk about a football match. We are going to talk about...*’ The class says ‘football match’. The internee continues ‘*a football match. Have you ever been to a football match?*’ The class says ‘yes sir’. The internee asks ‘*when was it? When was that? When were you at a football match?*’ Long pause. Then the internee calls on Mercy who stands up to speak.
- ‘*I was going to look ... to watch the match ... the football match at the stadium at the 19 of May*’ Mercy says. The internee says.
- ‘*OK. So we say it was on the 19<sup>th</sup> of May. Say that Mercy*’. Mercy does.
- The internee repeats this for the benefit of the class ‘*So she went to watch the football match on the 19<sup>th</sup> of May. The others when were you able to watch the match?*’ One pupil says ‘*I went to watch the match on the 14<sup>th</sup> of June*’. The internee repeats this. Then another pupil gives a date, followed by one more.
- Then the internee says ‘*OK so we have said that you have gone to watch a game a football game some time back. So, ... this football game which teams were playing?*’ Long pause. The internee calls on Karabo.
- ‘*I don’t know*’ Karabo says.
- ‘*You don’t know*’, says the internee, ‘*you don’t know the names of the teams that were playing?*’. The internee calls Thato. Thato mumbles something inaudible which the internee relays as ‘*OK school team. Which school team?*’ Thato names his school and the one next door as the ones that were playing. Another pupil stands up and names a pair of schools. The internee says ‘*So you only watch school*

*teams? I need other names... other teams which do not belong to schools'. Three pupils stand up one after the other and name teams. The internee says 'thank you'.*

- The internee says *'OK, so ... where was the place. Where were the two teams playing?'* One pupil says *'in the national stadium'*. Another says *'in the school playground'*, and so on.
- The internee then says *'OK, so what has been the final score? What was the final score? (x2)'*. One pupil says *'the final score was 3-1'*. The internee asks *'which team had won?'* The pupil says *'we won'*. More examples are given. To the one *'the final score was 9-0'* the internee shows surprise. Then another pupil waving his hand vigorously for attention stands up and says *'the final score was 16-5. My school ... ah ... the final score was 17-5'*. The internee asks in disbelief *'was it a football match?'* The pupils say *'yes teacher'*. The internee says *'17-5 in a football match?'* The pupils repeat *'yes teacher'*. The internee says *'ha!'*
- Then he says as he distributes the papers *'so now let us do this ... you look at these pictures that is in the papers. You take one.'* Movement round the class. Then he says *'can you see a picture there? (x2).'* The class says *'yes teacher'*. The internee asks *'what can you say about the picture? What is in the picture?...Dawn?'* Dawn says *'there is a football match'*. The internee repeats it and then asks *'so what else can you see? What can you see ... Ben?'* Ben says *'a man is scoring a goal'*. The internee repeats it and then says *'point at the man who is scoring a goal'*. Ben does and internee says *'OK. And where is the ball? (x3). I need an answer'*. Ben says *'the ball is in the net'*. The internee and the class repeat it. Then the internee says *'we call that a goalpost. And the ball is in the net'*.



- Then he says *'which teams do you think are playing there?'* One pupil says *'I think the teams which are playing are Singapore and Sumatra.'* The internee says now *'let us again open our books page 81. (Long pause). What is in that page? Who can tell us?'* One pupil says *'a football match'*. The internee repeats it.
- The internee says *'so we are going to read about a football match in our textbooks. Let us look at the first picture (x2). What can you see in the first picture? (x2)'* One child says *'I can see players'*. The internee repeats it and then asks *'are they putting on the same uniform?'* When the class says no, the internee says *'they are putting on the different uniforms so it means there are how many teams?'* The internee and the class say *'there are two teams'*. Then he asks *'what teams are those? (x2)...Linah'*. Linah says *'they are class 6 and class 7'*. The internee repeats this and then asks *'which school is that? (x2). The school is named.*
- The internee says *'can somebody read us number one please?'* One pupil starts reading immediately. Then the internee says *'number 2'* and several voices begin reading. The internee shouts *'aah no!'* but one boy continues reading on and everybody listens to him. When they discover how the pattern of getting a chance to read works, they begin reading even before the previous reader has finished his bit.
- There is total chaos now and no one is carefully listening to the reading any more. Finally the reading is finished. The internee says *'Now we are also going to write about a football match... use teams of your choice. You have never been to Singapore so teams will be different. You use your own words. And write about a*

*football match you have ever watched.*' Silence as pupils begin writing and the internee checks what is being written. The lesson soon ends.

### **Lesson C. Progress of a standard 4 English lesson on 'a domestic accident'**

**(30 minutes)**

- The internee is saying something audible only to the pupils in front to which they all say 'yes teacher'.
- Then she says *'We are going to make a game. There is a plastic bag. There is something there in the plastic bag. What is inside the plastic bag?'* Volunteers raise their hands and then walk to the plastic bag from which they retrieve a knife, cotton wool, cucumber, an onion, and several other vegetables. Then they tell the class what they have found.
- The internee says, *'OK now we are going to play a game with these items. I'd like somebody to come up and use them.'* Sarah volunteers. *'Use the knife. Cut the vegetables.'* (it looks obviously deliberate when she pretends to have cut her finger. So this must be a rehearsed lesson). *'Use the knife. Others watch!'*
- The internee asks *'What has happened to her? What has happened?'* (x3). Long pause. One volunteer is struggling with saying, 'she cut her finger' which the internee says for her. The internee then asks *'What did she cut her finger with?'* One volunteer says *'with a knife'*. The internee prefers the complete sentence: she cut her finger with a knife. So she says, *'Brian said "with a knife" ... is it normal? Is it normal? What did he do?'*

- A pupil says *'He used a phase'*. The internee says *'It is not a phase. What is it? What is it?'* Long pause until a volunteer says *'She used a ... phrase'*. The internee is pleased. She asks *'What did I say yesterday a phrase is?'* Long pause as the internee repeats the question. Finally one pupil says *'A phrase is a sentence without a verb'*. The internee says, *'That's right'*. She repeats twice, *'A phrase is a sentence without a verb'*.
- Then the internee says, *'Now that she has been cut by a knife, where did she go? (x3). Where else can she go? She can go to hospital? Or to some other place? ... Yes?'* A volunteer says *'She went to the clinic.'* The internee is pleased and says *'Good. Now I want somebody to go to the clinic. What does she need to go to the clinic?'* Long pause. A volunteer says *'She needs a hospital card'*. The internee agrees and asks, *'Who wants to be the nurse?'* A volunteer is found.
- Now the class watches the nurse attending the patient. This is followed by questions such as: where did she go after cutting her finger? What did the nurse do? (x4). What did she use to wash the sore? (x3). What is she doing now? See she is putting the bandage on the sore.'
- Then the internee said *'Yesterday we talked about different kind of a sentence. I want you to come up with a complete sentence'*. Some pupils provide examples.
- In an apparent twist the lesson ends practising using short phrases to answer questions. One example used was, *'These children do not go to school by combie, nor by taxi. What do they go to school by? How do they go to school?'* (x3). The internee says *'by foot'* (x3) is the correct answer, not, *\*\*'they go to school by foot'*. The wrong preposition is retained.

- The lesson ends.

**Lesson D. Progress of a lesson on a prepared speech in standard 4 (30 minutes)**

- The day before, volunteers were told to prepare to talk about how something is done. Today they have to present in front of the class (the presence of the observer seems to have affected their self-confidence). When the lesson begins the internee is persuading the class *'... or tell us what they are able to do. So I want those people to...'* The rest is said by the pupils *'tell us now'*. The internee continues *'raise up your hand, and stand up, you tell us how you carry out certain activity. Yes, Tebogo'*. Just as Tebogo stands up to begin her story, the internee says *'speak up so everyone can hear what you are saying.'*
- Tebogo begins *'how to make a buns. First you need some eggs, sugar, milk, and flour. Then you take a bowel (she meant bowl) and ...(inaudible)... then you take 3 eggs, break them and start to mix. Then you take margarine and mix with eggs. Then you take another bowel. Then you take the water.'*
- At this point the internee asks *'what kind of water? Hot water, cold water, what kind of water?'*
- Tebogo says *'hot water.'* The internee is surprised, says *'ha! hot water?'*
- Tebogo says *'yes.... Then you take another bowel. Then lift it out. After we do that we take ... (inaudible). You mix them with (inaudible)'*. The internee now fills in whenever Tebogo is stuck. *'you shape it ... good of you Tebogo. Clap hands for her'*. The class claps.
- The internee then says *'thank you, next one.'* A boy stands up and starts talking. The internee says *'stop laughing and tell us what ... (inaudible). You didn't tell us*

*what you are going to make. What are you going to make?*’ The pupil begins all over again ‘*how to make a ... (inaudible). First you take a bucket... and a draw... and after after ... you pour another one.*’ The rest is inaudible although the internee seems to follow and says ‘*you didn’t tell us if you mix it with soap or what. You said only water. You use only water to wash the car.*’ (For the observer it was very difficult to have known that this hesitant speaker was talking about car washing). The pupil says ‘*yes teacher... You take another ... and then ... then ... After that ...*’

- The internee is getting impatient with this pupil. Only one pupil has been able to speak so far, and time is running out. The second pupil has forgotten the things he wanted to talk about and the lesson ends with so much anticipated but very little done.

#### **Lesson E. Progress of a standard 6 English lesson on ‘the past simple’**

- The class is shuffling about to the front where they are going to perform a game. It is ‘a whisper game’. To the onlooker it looks like nothing is going on apart from the giggling.
- After about 10 minutes, the internee asks the last pupil in the long line ‘*what was the message? Let’s get the message from you, what was the message?*’ There is no answer. So the internee says ‘*you didn’t listen, or what?*’ The internee decides to ask those up the line what the message was, but still more giggles than answers. The internee then says, ‘*the purpose of this is ... this game is to show that the message is ...the last message is never ... is never as the original one. OK now go back to your seats*’.

- Then the internee says *'this is our lesson today. So people are going to tell us what they did over the long weekend, but before we get on to that, may I see those who were out of Gaborone. Are there any who went out of Gaborone?'* About eight pupils said they were not in Gaborone.
- *'Can someone stand up and tell us anything ... or what happened ... what he/she did during the long weekend ...where she spent, with who you were, where you went ... anything that you did, and anything interesting that you saw?'*
- One boy begins his account: *'During the weekend I was in Gaborone. I watched ... during the weekend I played football'*. The internee's interruption forces him to repeat these lines before he continues: *'during the weekend I played football with my friends. Then I went to the watch the game at the stadium'*. The internee asks *'what did you like, ... what did you see at the game ... can you tell us something about the game...or how many people went to the stadium? ... oh! May be we might like to know which teams were playing, how they played.'* The child continues *'the tournament was'* (the internee asks *'what?'*)... *it was a tournament of the vista charity cup. The team played first was Centre Chiefs, Township Rollers. They won the game during the penalties. The other game was played was... Gunners won the game with penalties. The final was at 4.30 p.m. When we were still waiting for the finals ... (inaudible) ... they were singing from 2.00 p.m. to 4.00 p.m. So my father ... mm (inaudible) ... My team lost in the finals during the penalties.'* The internee asks *'And how did you feel when your team lost?'* The pupil continues *'I feel'* (the teacher corrects)... *I felt very bored'*. The internee asks *'which team won?'*

*'Extension Gunners won. They won from...(inaudible) ... they won with 3 goals to 2 goals ...'*

- The internee says, *'that's very good. Who else can tell us what he or she did? But this time let's hear it from a lady'*.
- One pupil starts, *'I spent the weekend on Gaborone* (the internee says 'in'). *'I spent weekend in Gaborone. I was with my family. We went to the funeral. After the funeral, we visited our relatives in Gaborone. After visiting our relatives we went home ... and watched television. We went to the stadium.'*
- Then the internee says *'any one else? Each one of you has to tell us what happened over the weekend ...'*
- One pupil starts *'I went to Mochudi for the long weekend. I went to Mochudi on Saturday... I was with my younger brother. We were going ... we went by bus. We arrived late... in the evening. Then we went to my aunt's home ... then someone collected us from my aunt's place.*
- The internee asks a pupil, *'then what about you?'* (this very fluent speaker was so faint that very few heard her story). Time was running out so the internee announced *'We are now going tell it to a friend. Ask each other questions on what they did over the weekend ... it doesn't have to be your friend. The person sitting next to you'*. Then a joke was passed about a 'friend' whom every pupil seemed to know 'does not talk'. So the internee announces *'sit in pairs and ask each other questions ... each and every one should talk. I am listening'*. Soon after, the noise was unbearable, so the internee says, *'Don't make noise. So and so will talk to so-and-so. Go on ask a question'*. The internee walks around listening to the

dialogues. Noise levels are rising, especially because the rest of the school is out for tea break. Because it is break-time already, some pupils must run to the kitchen to secure their tea (or they will go without). And, a pair of carpenters walks in and begins a noisy job of fixing a broken door hinge inside the classroom.

- The lesson must end and it does, almost unceremoniously.

#### **Lesson F. Progress of a standard 4 English reading lesson**

- The lesson begins with the internee saying *'put away those books please.* (movement) *OK. I have some words here. Come and take one and read it for us. Temba, come and take one word here and read it to the class.'* Temba does but no one heard. So she raises her voice and says *'knees'*. The internee says *'thank you'*. The next word is 'handbag'. After this, the third volunteer has difficulty with the word he has picked. So the internee advises, *'show it to them. They will help you. Can you please hold it. Say it loud. He is saying "pretta". Is he correct?'* Pupils say 'no' as they laugh at the volunteer. The internee asks *'who can help him? Thuso, come and help him'*. So Thuso walks up to the word and reads "pretty". The internee is pleased and asks *'is she correct?'* The pupils say *'yes teacher'*. The next word is 'suitcase'. After this word the next is read as 'fanish'. When the internee asks *'is she correct?'* The pupils say 'no'. The pupil is told to try again and she says 'vanish'. This time she is successful.
- The internee then goes back to the first word and says *'so the first word is 'knees'.* *What does 'knees' mean?'* One pupil spontaneously asks *'in Setswana?'* The internee gives a bold *'No, in English.* (A long pause). *May be you can show us. If there is something in this room, you can show us this is knees. Quickly '* One pupil



touches her knees and says *'these are knees'*. The internee then adds that knees are part of the body.

- For the next word 'handbag' the internee calls a pupil who goes and picks up the internee's own handbag (causing a few giggles) and says *'this is a handbag'*. The internee says *'very good. That is a handbag ... something that we, most of ladies need. We carry it when we go for shopping. Or when we go for ceremonies'*.
- The internee says *'aha ... pretty'*. There is a long pause. Then one pupil says *'I think pretty means when you are beautiful'*. The internee asks if she is correct and the class says 'yes'. Even so, she calls on another pupil to try. This pupil says *'Labo's clothes are pretty'*. The internee still says *'who else wants to try?'* The third pupil says *'pretty means beautiful'*.
- The internee tells the speaker *'you are saying what the other one said. We say that when some one is pretty, we mean ... that when you are looking so nice, OK? When you are looking so nice ... like who?'* The whole class says 'you' meaning the internee. Embarrassed, the internee says *'No. Look at Wendy. She is so nice. Look at her hair. Look at her face. So smooth. So she is so pretty. Her nose and her eyes! OK? Look at my face, it's not smooth'*. Wendy is visibly very embarrassed.
- The internee says 'suitcase'. One pupil raises her hand and says *'big bag'*. The internee agrees and adds *'it is a big handbag which you can put your clothes on when you are going somewhere'*. The next word is 'vanish'. The internee says *'give a try Tom'*. Tom says *'I think vanish means people who make up their faces'*. The internee calls another pupil to also try. Long pause. Then a pupil says some thing very inaudible. The internee says *'he thinks vanish is when you do something and a*

*furniture. He is associating vanish with furniture. He is correct. When you look at this table you can see they have used a wood. But if this wood is scratched... you find something to vanish it so it can shine. Or vanish also, look at my nails: I have vanished my nails ... With what?’ The pupils say ‘Qutex’.*

- The internee then tells the class to take out the textbook and look at page 101. When everyone is ready one pupil is asked to read the first paragraph. There is a long pause. Then the reader begins. Four others follow her, each reader taking a paragraph. The following words and expressions were difficult for the reader who encountered them: **postcard**, **looking forward to seeing you**, **scarf**, **collar**, **high-heeled shoes**, **earrings**, and **complained**. These were not explained.
- Then the internee says *‘I’d like you to close your books because you have been listening...so can you close your books and ask others about what we have been hearing? Close your books. Ask others a question to see if they were listening.’*
- One boy asks *‘where did Sophie come from?’* The answer he gets is *‘Sophie was from town’*. The class says it is a correct answer but the internee says *‘the question was where did. So why are you saying Sophie was from town? I think you had something in your mind. He said Sophie comes from town. You are saying Sophie was from town. Why did you say that?’* A brief moment of confusion before a pupil gives an inaudible explanation and the internee concludes *‘that’s right. He asked in past tense. That’s why he wanted him to answer in past tense’*.
- A long pause follows. The internee eventually got two more questions. One of them was *‘who wear a brown dress?’* In answer another pupil answered *‘Sophie wear a brown dress’*. The internee asks *‘correct?’* The class gives a thunderous ‘yes

teacher'. The teacher says *'but do we say Sophie wear?'* Some pupils try to answer this as the internee points out that the questioner was asking in present tense. There is a little confusion as the internee explains. Then one pupil says *'Sophie wears'*.

- The internee calls for one last question. One pupil asks *'how old is Sophie?'* when the correct answer is given the internee says *'whenever you read or whenever some one reads, you have to listen because at the end of it you have to answer some questions. And you have to show us that you have been listening by asking others questions'*. The internee soon decides she has time for one more question. The pupil asks *'was dress short or long?'* The internee says *'uh, was dress short or long?'* This was correctly answered as *'the dress was short'*. The internee adds that grandmother did not like short dresses.
- The lesson ends there.

#### **Lesson G. Progress of another standard 4 English reading lesson**

- The internee says something inaudible but a few pupils say 'yes teacher'. The internee then says *'OK Ludo, from the beginning you read'*. The pupil reads. She has difficulty with the word *'thirsty'* but the pupil next to her helps. When she finally stops the internee says loudly *'go ahead Ludo, or you have finished the first paragraph?'* The pupil says *'yes teacher'*.
- The internee says *'OK, Ringo?'* While Ringo is still reading, the internee says *'Peter, go on and read the next paragraph'*. (Inaudible). The internee asks an inaudible question. Then the reader begins. The internee then calls *'Priscilah'*. Then Priscilah reads. Next the internee says *'yes Roe'*. Roe reads. The internee then says *'yes Anna'*. Anna reads. The internee now says *'Ken?'*. After a little while, she

says 'Med'. Med has difficulty reading '*politician*'. The internee helps. Now she says 'Beat'. Beat misreads '*now*' as '*no*', and '*battle*' as '*bittle*'. The class corrects her.

- She says 'Nick'. After Nick's reading, the internee announces to the rest of the class '*write down the questions that you are going to ask for that story*'.
- Then she says 'Ned'. Ned reads on. He misreads '*crocodile*' as '*commandment*'. The internee forces him to look again. The internee says afterwards. '*let's give Moses a chance*'. Moses has difficulty reading the word '*anxiously*' but the internee helps.
- Now she says '*OK, any one with a question?*' One pupil puts up his hand and asks, '*what was the story about?*' The internee says that the question is for the whole class. A long wait passes so the internee asks the questioner if he wants a particular person to answer the question. The pupil picked gets it right '*the story was about the hare and the crocodile*'.
- Another pupil asks '*did the crocodile eat the hare?*' The first child to answer says '*the crocodile eat the hare*'. The internee asks '*is she correct?*' The class says '*no*'. The internee wants to know who can help her. A volunteer says '*no the crocodile did not eat the hare*'. The questioner says it is wrong. Every one is dismayed. The questioner is not quite sure of the correct tense. He is told the answer is correct.
- The third questioner says '*did hare knows how to swim?*' the internee says '*what?*' A pause follows. Fortunately the questioner gets it right the second time. The first pupil to answer the question says '*no, the hare didn't know... didn't know how to swim*'. The internee cuts in quickly and says '*you can't say didn't and then know!*'

*Who can help her? What should she say?* One child says *'do not'*. The internee says *'the question was did hare know how to swim? So what should be the answer? Yes Tumelo.'* Tumelo says *'no the hare did not know how to swim.'* The internee repeats the answer above twice.

- She then says *'yes Lettie, a question'*. Lettie begins *'what... what... what grabbed the hare's foot?'* the internee repeats the question twice. A pause follows. Then one pupil says *'crocodile... the crocodile grabbed the hare's foot.'* The internee notices a hand raised immediately and asks *'is it not correct? Or do you want to ask the next question?'* The pupil says *'yes teacher'*.
- The pupil tries several times. The internee says *'they are saying they cannot hear you'*. She raises his voice and says *'what was hare doing when ... (inaudible)...'* The internee says *'uh ... uh... come again with your question. Say that question again'*. *'What was hare dreaming about when ... the ... (inaudible).'* The internee completes it for her and says *'what was hare dreaming about when the river flooded? Yes say that.'* The pupil repeats the question. The lesson ends.

#### **Lesson H. Progress of a standard 6 English lesson on 'present continuous tense'**

- The internee asks class *'what were we learning about last time?'* She rejects the first answer given which was *'past tense'*.
- The internee asks *'What does the present tense describe?'* and one pupil says *'The present tense describes things that are always true'* and another *'The present tense describes things that we usually do'*.
- The internee asks *'Who can give me examples in the present simple tense?'* One pupil says *'The sun sets in the west'*. The internee repeats this and alters it slightly

*'the sun sets west, does it set west?'* Some pupils say yes, a few say no. However, this truth is not confirmed as more 'examples' are called. To the one *'my father usually drive me to school'* the internee asks, *'Is it correct?'* as she writes it on the board. She asks *'Why do we put an 's'?'* The answer given was *'because it is one person'* and sentences beginning with *'he'/'she'/'it'*. Other examples follow.

- The internee asks *'In which words don't we add 's'?'* The answer given was *'when the sentence begins with 'they', 'we', 'you' and 'I'.* Examples followed.
- The internee says to one pupil *'go and write your name on the board'*. As the pupil writes, the internee asks *'what are you doing?'* The child says *'I am writing my name'*. Then she asks one pupil to jump and the pupil says as he jumps *'I am jumping'*. After the whole class has performed the action they say *'we are jumping'*. The internee then asks *'what tense are we using?'* One pupil says *'the present tense'* but the internee is not happy with that answer. She says as she writes on the board *'it's called 'the present continuous tense'*. After this the class reads aloud the two sentences on the board: *I am writing my name/He is jumping.*
- The internee asks *'this tense, what does it describe?'* One pupil says *'it describes what we are doing'*. The internee agrees and says *'this tense, at the end of the verb we add '-ing'. We also have 'am' and 'is'.*
- The internee shows the class sets of words and says *'you are going to make me sentences in the present continuous tense'*. The words are: sit, do, talk, come, open, listen, and so on.

- Writing begins. The class is a little relaxed now that the internee has stopped asking questions. Animated talking everywhere in the room. The internee is issuing instructions about how many sentences to write but the class cannot hear her.
- One hour is over and the lesson must end.

### **Lesson I. Progress of a standard 4 English lesson entitled ‘road safety’**

The lesson must have been a review of a follow-up of a previous one, or a complete repeat of a rehearsed one.

- The internee begins by saying ‘*in the main road ...in the road, what happened? What went wrong? Something happened ... what was it?*’ One pupil says ‘*the child approach the road.... When the car... the car...*’? The internee asks another pupil who says ‘*... and the car come in*’. The internee asks ‘*and the car come in, was there a roof for the car to come in?*’ There is a little confusion now until one pupil says ‘*the child went in the road when car hit him*’. The internee promptly asks ‘*was the child hitten by a car?*’ the rest of the class gives a strong ‘no’. The internee asks again ‘*what happened? The pupil was running to cross the road and something happened. What was it? What happened? The pupil was not hitten by the car.*’
- One pupil narrates the events accurately which the internee repeats for everyone to hear as follows: *the child came running crossing the road. And there was a car coming. The driver swivved (she meant swerved) the car to avoid the pupil. As he swivved his car, he dropped on to the pole... And something happened to the driver, what happened to the driver?’ One pupil is attempting but the internee quickly helps by saying ‘*he banged his head, he broke his hand and...cut his finger*’. The internee continues ‘*Somebody was there when the accident happened, and he did**

*something to the driver and the child. What did he do to then?’ One pupil says ‘he took them to the hospital’. The internee agrees.*

- The internee says ‘now, I have this words (writes them on the board). *These are the words we are going to use. The first one is ‘mistake’, ‘servity* (she meant safety) *code’, ‘don’t’.*
- Then she said ‘*looking back at the accident. The child made a mistake. What can you say a mistake is? What do we mean by mistake? A child made a mistake.*’ One pupil says ‘*the child made something wrong.*’ The internee then adds ‘*then something wrong happened. She didn’t look before she crossed the road and something wrong happened. What can you say about mistake? What do we mean by mistake?*’ One pupil says ‘*When we say somebody has made a m... mistake, we say, he have do wrong thing.*’ The internee says ‘*very good. He has done something wrong. When you do something wrong you are making a mistake*’.
- The internee now says ‘*now we have the servity code. The word ‘code’ mean the same with the word ‘rule’, meaning the rules that we make to keep us safe. They are road rules made to keep us safe*’. She explains that road rules are like school rules.
- The internee then explains the word ‘don’t’. She then introduces a game for use with the word ‘don’t’ e.g. ‘clap’/‘don’t clap’ which the pupils seemed to enjoy.
- She then asks for six volunteers to stand facing each other. Then the internee says ‘*now we are going to say out the servity code that is in our books*’.



- The internee draws a chart from which the class was to find a mistake, name the mistake, and then proceed to tell the wrongdoers what they must not do using the word ‘don’t’.
- Then the class is told to turn to page 74 and write 5 sentences on road safety beginning with ‘don’t’. This part ended the lesson.

#### **Lesson J. Progress of a standard 6 listening lesson: ‘a ghost’**

- The internee is talking ‘*take out your English exercise books. Write the date and the title.... And then listen very carefully. Have you finished writing the date and the title? Uh?*’ when the pupils say ‘yes teacher’ the internee says ‘*Listen very carefully. A Ghost*’. The internee then starts reading after about 10 minutes.
- ‘*One night Mary Mswela was walking home from church. She was with her friend, Gloria Kamani. It was a very bad night and there was no moon. They heard a dog bark. Then they heard foot-steps. Someone was running towards them. They could see nothing. .... Nearer and nearer.....*’
- Silence. Then the internee says ‘*I am going to read it again.*’ And starts all over again.
- After reading the internee says ‘*now you answer the questions. You don’t write the questions. You just write the answer. Answers only. Question one:* (inaudible) (x2). Silence as the pupils write. ‘*Question 2: was she alone or with a friend?*’ (x2). silence as answers are written. ‘*Question 3: was it daytime or night-time?*’ (x2). Pupils writing. ‘*Question 4: what 2 things did they hear?*’ (x2). Writing. ‘*Question 5: what did Mary call out?*’(x2) Writing. ‘*Question 6: who replied?*’(x2) Writing. ‘*Question 7: what flew over their heads?*’(x2) Writing. ‘*Question 8: were Mary and*

*Gloria afraid?’ Writing. ‘Question 9: what did they see when the moon came out?’*

(x2) Writing. *‘The last question. Question 10: did they feel frightened when they could see?’*(x2) Writing.

- The internee is talking to some pupils next to her. Much of it is inaudible. Then she starts reading the story a third time. After that she reads the questions again. Then the internee says *‘which question do you want me to repeat?’* Individual pupils tell her which ones they did not hear well.
- The answer session is oral as pupils mark their work.
- Because much time was spent on making sure the pupils were listening, the lesson soon ends with very little visible activity.

#### **Lesson K. Progress of a standard 4 story telling lesson (30 minutes)**

- The internee is calling on a volunteer to come to the front of the class and tell a story. The internee says *‘you listen carefully to the story so that you can ask her a question after the story’*.
- A very confident volunteer whose story rendered in fluent L2 captivates the rest of the class uses up the next 8 minutes or so. The class claps hands after the story. Then the internee says *‘ok thank you very much. Any one from the class who wants to ask her a question? You heard the story?’*The pupils say ‘yes’.
- *‘Did you understand the story?’*
- ‘Yes’.
- *‘Who can ask her a question?’*
- A volunteer asks an inaudible question which the narrator answers inaudibly too.
- Then the internee asks *‘who can tell us another story? Another story?’*

- A volunteer stands up and says *'I am going to tell you a story'* and starts telling it. The class claps hands after the story. When the internee invites questions they were all whispered to the narrator and could not be heard by the rest of the class.
- After the questions the internee calls *'Thusang! Tell us a story please'*. Thusang stands up and the class claps for him. As it turns out, Thusang is a very poor speaker and his story sounds like it is being read. He soon sits down and the class claps for him again, mockingly.
- The questions directed at his story are more numerous. Almost everyone wants to ask him something or is it because everyone is tired. But as usual the questions and answers are inaudible. Soon the lesson ends.

#### **Lesson L. Progress of a standard 5 lesson on 'the family'**

- The internee tells the class that everyone was going to get a chance to speak and that no one was going to laugh at other people's mistakes and that mistakes were to help them learn. The topic to talk about was introduced by this question: *'Give me a name of any institution you know. An institution means any way by which people gather'*.
- One pupil raises her hand and says *'a kgotla'* (a Setswana word for *'court'*). Another pupil says *'a home'*. The internee picks up this and says *'at home people gather around. One word we use to describe people in a home is ...?'* Long pause.
- One pupil said *'family'*. This was followed by a listing of the members of the family.

- Then the internee spoke about her own family: number of people in it, what they do, who is youngest/eldest, and the part of Botswana where the family lives and where she grew up as a child. Then she invited volunteers to do the same.
- Altogether 8 pupils willingly spoke about their families. From then on it required tremendous persuasion to get any more speakers. The internee used questions to get some thing out of the rest and it was becoming clear that some pupils felt uneasy talking about their families for everyone to know.
- The internee thanked everyone and cautioned everybody against mocking their friends over what they had learnt about their family.
- A thematic song entitled '*matching home to our family*' wound up the lesson and helped return the class to a new level of liveliness.

#### **Lesson M. Progress of a standard 6 lesson on sentence patterns**

- The internee says '*give me a sentence. Any sentence*'. Long pause. Eventually, one pupil raises her hand and gives a sentence. Several others follow her, many of these the internee writes on the board. Eventually, nearly each pupil says a sentence even though the sentences are unconnected to the topic or to anything in particular.
- Then the internee says '*look at this sentence: I am going to town*'. What is '*I*'? x3. Long pause.
- '*I is when you mean a person or yourself*', one pupil says eventually. The internee is not quite happy with that answer.
- '*it is a noun*', another volunteer says. The internee asks '*is she correct? Is it a noun? What is it?*' Long pause. '*Give me an example of a noun*'. Correct examples

are given. So the internee says *'what if you don't want to use a noun, what do you use in its place? A word that can stand for a noun, what is it called?'* Long pause.

- *'Pronoun'*, one volunteer eventually says.
- The internee's relief is evident. She then says *'I is a pronoun. Let's look at going. What about going?'* The pupils say it is a verb. The internee says *'very good. What about 'town'?* The pupils say it is a noun. The internee agrees and says *'so we have a pronoun, a verb, and a noun'.*
- After this long and complex introduction, the internee says *'so our topic today is a simple sentence. A simple sentence is made up of the subject, a verb, and object'.* When the pupils have repeated the internee's sentence, she says *'so I have a sentence hear: the pupils like oranges'.* *Read it to the class Mavis.*
- Mavis reads it. The internee says 'very good' but changes it to *'Maud likes oranges'* and explains that the sentence has a subject, which is the doer in the sentence. The internee then writes *'I am going to school'.* She then asks the class to identify the subject, the verb, and the object!
- Some more examples from the pupils are discussed before the internee writes a few sentences on the board. The class uses these sentences to demonstrate the parts of the sentence. Pupils come to the board and underline the subject, verb, and object.
- One pupil gives the sentence *'Tiny and Dolly are playing football'.* The internee says very good and clarifies that in a sentence one can have two or more subjects.
- The internee tells the pupils to get their exercise books and write 8 'simple sentences' in their books as the internee checks the work. After more than an hour the lesson ends.

### Lesson N. Progress of a standard 6 lesson on sentence patterns

- The internee calls on Temba to give a sentence. Temba says *'I play tennis'*. The internee says *'very good. What is the subject, what is the verb, and what is the object?'* A volunteer names them correctly.
- In the next phase of the lesson, the volunteers had to analyse their own sentences as the rest of the class listened.
- After that the internee explained that a sentence is made up of a group of words and that the words are arranged so that we can show the subject, the verb and the object. After every one was quiet the internee said *'I want you to construct 10 sentences in the same way we have been doing. Then you underline the subject, the verb, and the object.'* There is a little noise as pupils begin writing, but soon everyone is silent as the internee checks what is being written.
- After some time it was becoming apparent to the internee that the task is not clear. So the internee repeats the instructions. *'I said write your own sentences. If you have used a verb use it once only.'*
- More silence punctuated from time to time by the internee's fresh instructions. *'Don't get confused. Don't say: I kicking the ball. We are looking at action verbs... so use a helping verb "am" ....don't get confused!!'*
- Noise in one corner indicates that frustration is setting in. The internee is unhappy. *'Stop that noise at once. Who is it making that noise? Do your work.'*
- Now she says *'Let's talk more about the object. The ball is strong. That tells us that the ball is strong. Strong tells us more about the ball. A strong ball. OK. Carry on'*.

- The lesson is running into more difficulties, so the internee walks over to the observer (myself) to seek clarification. *'Can you, ... about that sentence.... What is the object?'* The observer says the adjective is acting as a complement, and not as an object and that the sentence has no object. The intern says thank you but does not correct for the class the misinformation passed earlier on.
- The noise comes again but is quickly stopped by a knock at the door. The teacher from next door is announcing something. The lesson ends almost unceremoniously on this note.

### **Lesson O. Progress of a standard 6 lesson on the present & past simple tenses**

- The internee begins the lesson by asking *'What did we do when we used the present simple tense? ... Or, when did we use the present simple tense?... The present simple tense'*. A very long pause. *'Oh, you are looking at me! You look as if you are afraid. Why do we use the present tense? The present simple tense'*. One volunteer stands up and begins *'The present simple tense ... to join sentences'*. The internee interrupts with *'Uh? To join sentences? Uh? ... we use the present simple tense to talk about things that happen repeatedly (x2). For example, we walk to school everyday. This action happens repeatedly. Right? Can you give more examples of the present simple tense? The example we had that time'*. Long pause.
- One pupil gives a correct example *'I eat porridge everyday'*. The internee is very pleased and repeats it for the benefit of the others. Another example follows.
- Then the internee says *'We also use the present simple tense to talk about action which happen all the time. For example I go to school everyday. Give me examples of actions that happen all the time. What are they?'* (x2). Long pause. One pupil

says *'Every Sunday we go to pray'*. The internee says *very good* followed by another long pause. The next example eventually comes and the internee wrote it on the board: *She is always afraid of the teacher.*

- Then the internee says *'Those whom I sent to write more examples of the present simple tense... now I am going to get them. Tomorrow I want more example of the present simple tense, do you hear? Uh?'* ... but the pupils remained silent.
- Now the internee says *'This time we are going to learn about the past simple tense.'* Long pause as the internee writes the new title on the board and carefully underlines it. Then she says *'When we talk about ... or, when we use the past simple tense, or the past tense of a verb to talk about an action that took place at a definite time in the past and now that action is finished'*. One pupil is fidgeting with something under the desk and the internee, calling her name, warns her to stop. Then she repeats the function of the past simple. Silence. *'For example I waited for a bus for an hour yesterday (x2). I waited for a definite time and now I am no longer waiting. That is the past tense of the verb. I waited.'* Silence.
- The internee proceeds to give this example *'She wanted to buy them last week'*. The internee explains that now that person no longer wants to buy them. Silence.
- She then says *'I have given you 2 examples. Those examples show that... we talk about the past simple when we are talking about a definite time that has passed. Now you give me your examples. Quickly.'* Long pause. *'Any sentence in the past simple tense form'*. Silence. *'Are you thinking of examples, Duma?'* Silence. *You seem far away.'* Silence.



- One pupil says ‘*My mother cooked some food in the morning*’. The internee repeats it twice and then writes it on the board as she explains it and then says ‘*Uh, more examples. People whose hands were up are now down. Were you going to use the same example?*’ Silence.
- The internee then says ‘*OK. Let me put it this way ... examples of any past simple form. Any past simple form. A sentence, or a word in the past simple tense.*’ Silence. ‘*Ah, is it you don’t want to participate? Why?*’ A volunteer says ‘*Played*’. The internee says ‘*Very good, my boy. More. Everyone should come up with an example. Everyone.*’ A range of different, disconnected single words in the past simple is given. After a while the internee says ‘*Can you put these words now into sentences?*’ Some sentences from the pupils are heard.
- The internee then says ‘*we also use the past simple tense for actions that happened regularly in the past. I am going to give you one example and others are going to come from you. When I was a child I walked to school everyday. The second way: I used to walk to school everyday when I was a child.*’ Silence.
- One volunteer eventually says ‘*I brushed my teeth yesterday*’. The internee rejects this because, according to her, it referred to something ‘done at a definite time in the past but not repeatedly’. Other examples are heard from other volunteers.
- Now the internee says ‘*As you can see here we just added –ed. But there are others which are called irregular verbs (x2)*’. Examples are given followed by a written exercise. And the lesson ends.

## APPENDIX E

### Park's Verbal Interaction Analysis (VIA)

Park's Verbal Interaction Analysis (VIA) provides a descriptive analysis of classroom interaction on 18 verbal behaviour categories (Le Roux 1996:45) as follows:

#### A) TEACHER DISCOURSE

Teacher discourse is broken into 11 categories (C1- C11)

i) Teacher response: the instrument distinguishes between 3 types of teacher response to pupils' questions:

**C1: Terminal Response:** a terminal response ends a question-answer episode. The answer the pupil seeks is given and the teacher continues the lesson without referring to the pupil's question.

**C2: Continual Response:** a continual response continues the interaction elicited by the pupil question. The teacher adapts the course of the lesson by posing a counter-question (which in this case is not classified into categories 10 or 11 but into category 2) or by asking a pupil to formulate the question more precisely, by readdressing the question to the group or by using the pupil's question as a problem to be solved during the rest of the lesson.

**C3: Criticizing Response:** This response to a pupil's question is aimed more at the pupil than at the question, since the pupil is criticized or admonished for asking the question. The teacher therefore indicates that the question will not be answered. This may be due to the teacher thinking that the questions are of low quality or because the teacher is not flexible enough to deal with the pupil's problem during the lesson.

ii) Teacher Reaction: Teacher reactions are voluntary and so are not solicited by the pupil questions, for instance:

**C4: Accepting Reaction:** An accepting reaction merely acknowledges verbal participation of a pupil. This may be done by acknowledging a pupil comment or reaction as correct or relevant or by praising a pupil for giving a correct answer and thereafter continuing the lesson.

**C5: Integrating Reaction:** A pupil's verbal response or reaction is integrated into the lesson and used while the explanation of content is continued.

**C6: Rejecting Reaction:** The teacher disregards or rejects a pupil's contributions or responses.

iii) Teacher Structuring: Teacher structuring is associated with one-way verbal communication, as follows:

**C7: Informal Structuring:** this indicates teacher discourse that is not directly concerned with the presentation or clarification of lesson content. References to events the pupils have experienced (e.g. a sports event in which they participated) in order to create a positive climate and gain rapport with the pupils.

**C8: Imparting:** lesson content that is presented by means of one-way communication.

**C9: Instructing:** any task given to pupils, whether it has anything to do with the clarification of content or not e.g. opening a book at a particular page, or forming groups.

iv) Teacher Questioning

**C10: Question to an Individual Pupil:** All questions directed at a particular pupil except those falling in category 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9.

**C11: Question to the Group:** Questions where the teacher does not nominate a specific pupil to answer the question except those in category 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9.

## **B) PUPIL DISCOURSE**

Pupil verbal activities are marked off in categories C12 – C18

i) **Pupil Response:** pupil responses are solicited by teacher or pupil question. Any answer pupils give to a question asked either by the teacher or another pupil must therefore be regarded as a pupil response.

**C12: Correct Response:** indicates the pupil answered the question correctly.

**C13: Incomplete Response:** Indicates incomplete or partly correct pupil answer.

**C14: Wrong Response:** indicates incorrect pupil answer, including statements such as ‘I don’t know’; but if a pupil remains silent, this should not be marked off as incorrect answer.

ii) **Pupil Reaction:** Pupil reactions that are voluntary unsolicited verbal contributions.

**C15: Reaction to A Teacher Contribution:** this category is used if a pupil contributes or comments on a verbal or non-verbal teacher behaviour.

**C16: Reaction to Another Pupil Contribution:** this category is used if a pupil verbally contributes or comments on a fellow pupil’s verbal or non-verbal action.

iii) **Pupil Questions:** Pupil questions which openly address the teacher or fellow pupils fall into this category.

**C17: Pupil Question: Primary Information:** The question a pupil asks to gain more information directly related to the lesson content being discussed. They are mostly concerned with clarifying subject matter at hand.

**C18: Pupil Question: Secondary Information:** The question a pupil asks to gain information which has no direct bearing on the content discussed. They mostly lead to enrichment since related themes or fields are introduced by the answers.